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CONTENTS.

	PAGE.
PORTRAIT OF THE REV. EGERTON EYERSON, D. D., LL. D.,	433
1. SECONDARY INSTRUCTION IN PRUSSIA,	433
1. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT—SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION,	433
a. State or Central Authority, Decree of 1552, 1573, 1662, 1687, Establishment of Third Section in Ministry of Interior, 1808, Humboldt, Ni ^o ctovius, Suvern, Special Minister of Education and Worship, Baron von Altenstein, Eichhorn, Von Raumer,	435 435 440 440 441 441
b. Provincial Authorities, 1. Province of Prussia, 2. Province of Posen, 3. Silesia, 4. Pomerania, 5. Saxony, 6. Westphalia, 7. Rhine and Hohenzollern, 8. Brandenburg, c. Municipal Authorities, d. Miscellaneous,	447 449 449 451 452 453 454 455 455 459 460 462
2. TEACHERS—their qualifications and appointment, Director—Object, import and official position, Conferences of Directors, Class-system and Professors, Title, hours of work, leave of absence,	463 466 468 469 470
3. REGULATIONS FOR EXAMINATION, Examen pro facultate—Examen pro loco, Trial Lessons, Degrees of Proficiency, Conditional facultate docendi, Examination for teaching Drawing, Gymnastics, Surveying,	474 476 478 479 481 483
4. PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR SUPERIOR SCHOOLS, Philological Seminaries, Pedagogic Seminaries, Pedagogic Trial Year, Travel to visit Foreign Schools,	484 484 487 489 492
5. STUDY PLANS, Degree of Instruction—1810, 1812, 1816, 1831, 1837, Latin, Greek, Mathematics, 1836, Mental Philosophy, Religion, Gymnastics, Stenography,	492 493 496 498
6. REAL-SCHOOLS AND HIGHER BURGHER-SCHOOLS, Progressive Development, Plan of Study in 1859,	501 502
7. GENERAL MATTERS, Establishment of New Institutions, School Year, Size of Classes, Vacations, School Programme, Books of References, Discipline, Order of rank, Privileges of Graduates,	503 503 504 505 506
8. CLASSIFICATION OF INSTITUTIONS BY DATE OF ESTABLISHMENT, 9. ARRANGEMENT OF INSTITUTIONS BY PROVINCES,	508 513

	PAGE.
II. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN DUCHY OF OLDENBURG,.....	519
History and Population,	519
1. Elementary or Primary Schools,.....	519
2. Secondary Schools,.....	522
3. Professional Schools,.....	523
III. SWITZERLAND,.....	525
Territory, Population, Public Instruction,.....	525
IV. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN CANTON OF ZURICH,.....	527
School Code of 1859,.....	527
V. SCHOOLS AS THEY WERE SIXTY YEARS AGO IN THE UNITED STATES,.....	533
Reminiscences of Schools and Teachers, by Samuel Seton,.....	533
Master Miles' School, in Stonington Borough, Conn.,.....	607
VI. ACADEMIC EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES,.....	531
Circular asking for Information,	561
MONSON ACADEMY,.....	563
List of Principals,.....	563
Instructors in the English Department,.....	564
Female Teachers,.....	565
List of Trustees,.....	565
Benefactors and Endowments,.....	567
Departments of Instruction,.....	568
Studies in 1867,.....	569
Boarding, Religious Education, Discipline,.....	571
Societies, Tuition,.....	572
Massachusetts System of Academies,.....	573
Report and Act of 1797,.....	574
VII. EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY,.....	577
EGERTON RYERSON, Chief Superintendent of Education in Upper Canada,.....	577
Memoir,	577
Summary of Educational Progress in Upper Canada from 1834 to 1866,.....	593
VIII. GERMAN UNIVERSITIES,.....	595
Compared with English and French,.....	595
Peculiar features of the German,.....	597
Necessity of Prolonged Residence,.....	602
Domestic life of Students,.....	604
Notes. Endowments of Oxford University,	603

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PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN PRUSSIA.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

A. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.

a. Supreme Administration.

THE various independent constituent parts of Prussia from which the kingdom has its origin, prevented an early central administration of public instruction, which was not established till the present century. The schools generally, according to their origin, were at first closely connected with the Church and its regulations, or dependent on the local authorities. The Elector Joachim II. organized in 1552 a consistory for evangelical church and school affairs in Brandenburg; John George decreed in 1573 a visiting and consistorial regulation, which determined the supervision of the schools, as well as their internal arrangements, the instruction and the relations of the teachers. Clergymen were made inspectors, and at the head was the consistory, composed of four or five members, whose assessor was usually the general superintendent. This council undertook the traveling inspection in the provinces, which was fixed at every ten years for each province; during which period the clergymen were exempt from school and church visiting duties. The regulation specified as visitors: "Our general *Superintendents* and one of our Consistory members, or from some other council, together with the *Notarius*" (clerk.) The visitors appointed as inspectors for the surrounding towns and villages, the pastors of the principal cities of each place. In regard to the instruction of teachers and pupils of the city-schools, which developed afterwards into high-schools, very special regulations were made. At the time of the institution of a privy counselorship, under the Elector Joachim Frederic, as the highest established administrative council, there originated with it, for the consistory, an additional clerical department. The Thirty Years' War, from whose devastating consequences the Brandenburgian countries suffered particularly, prevented for a long time any further progress in School administration. As a proof of this, we have the decree of Elector Frederick William concerning the affairs of the Protestant Church, in 1662, which contains also the beginning of a School regulation, namely, "that churches and communities should unite their efforts in organizing here and there, in villages, towns and cities, well-administered schools." The Lutheran Church regulations for the Duchy of Cleves and the earldom of Mark, in 1687, recommend the same, although with more detailed specifications.

The union of the Duchy of Prussia with the Brandenburgian provinces, the erection of Prussia into a kingdom under Frederic III, rendered centralization in the administration possible, and thus in fact developed the general legislation of the Prussian State since the eighteenth century. Entering deeper into the question, and aiming at a still greater centralization of instruction, was the royal decree of Frederick William I, October 24, 1713, concerning the Prussian evangelical, inspective, presbyterial, parochial regulations for gymnasiums and schools. It gives the supervision of all the schools to the Church: "the gymnasiums and Latin schools of Berlin, Frankfort on the Oder, and Halle, to continue in their present organization and *typis lectionum*, and those of the other cities and provinces to be modeled as much as possible upon the former, so that some uniformity might be obtained." The decidedly Protestant character of this regulation shows itself in the importance it gives to the Heidelberg catechism: "No other catechism for the young to be allowed in schools or churches." The exclusive use of this catechism was again prescribed in 1716. Important for higher instruction was the revised regulation of September 30, 1718, both for students in schools and universities, as also for the *Canditorum ministerei*, in which the moral and scientific requirements of those devoting themselves to university studies, namely, the theologians, are strongly set forth and enforced.

In December 22d, 1722, Frederic William I. issued instructions for the general treasury, war and domain departments, which contained also an article relative to church and school affairs: "In all places," says the article, "where the *jus patronatus* belongs to us, the churches and schools shall be kept in good condition, and the administration shall direct the authorities of the provinces to see to this matter." The mere aesthetic development of the mind found no sympathy with this king: he cared chiefly for the wants of the common people. The administration of this department was given to Printzen, president of the German and French members of the consistory, director of all ecclesiastical affairs, protector of the academy of fine arts, principal trustee of all the royal universities, etc., who held it from 1722 to 1725. He was succeeded by the Baron of In-and-Knyphausen, to whom, in consequence of an accumulation of work in the consistorial affairs, (1730) was associated as vice-president, Von Reichenbach. In the four provincial departments, the church and school affairs were administered by members of the consistory and the legislature.

It is natural that under a monarch like Frederick II., the school administration should be more intelligently conceived than under his predecessor, so far his inferior in real culture. As soon as the storms of war were over, he issued a decree, (1750,) for the Lutheran high consistory of Berlin, to whom was intrusted the supervision of the consistories of the provinces, with the exception of those of Schleswig. Its first president was the chief of the ecclesiastical department, the privy State and law minister, Baron of Danckelmann in 1764, the church and school

affairs of the Protestants were intrusted to a special chief. But it was only after the close of the Seven Years' War that the great king could give his special attention and care to what he considered the hobby of his old age, schools and public instruction. For the carrying out of his views of education and mental culture, he chose Baron von Zedlitz-Leipe, who, as minister of the State and Law department, was made ex-officio chief of the ecclesiastical department for the Protestant church and school affairs, (January 18, 1771.) The king's letter of 1769 *sur l'éducation*, (Œuvres ix., p. 113,) contains the principles by which public instruction was to be guided, and has been guided since. He regretted that in the gymnasiums the pupils were not accustomed to think for themselves and did not begin early to exercise their own judgment. In the public offices, birth had no advantage over merit. "I am persuaded," he says, "that man can be made what you wish him to be. All that enlightens the mind, all that widens the circle of knowledge, elevates the soul, and never lowers it." The exercise of one's judgment, the cultivation of the understanding, thinking for one's self, were considered the soul of instruction, and Zedlitz was the man to make these principles the fundamental springs of his activity, in opposition to the blind memorizing of matters never understood, to the reciting of mere words, and to the mental inactivity of both pupils and teachers. He succeeded in carrying out his purposes, to find the right sort of men in Meierotto, Niemeyer, Gedike; he called the philologist Fr. Aug. Wolf to Halle, and the development of the Prussian high-school system is still linked with the activity of these men. It was at the time when Zedlitz was at the head of the Educational administration, that that great movement of the Pedagogy took place, a revolution which originated with Basedow, who harmonized thoroughly with the fundamental ideas underlying Zedlitz's views. It was also to carry these out that Trapp was called from his Philanthropinum in Dessau, to take the chair of Professor of Pedagogics at Halle. But Zedlitz recognized soon the emptiness of this scheme of mere pedagogics, and in announcing to the king (1782) the return of Trapp to Holstein, declared the vacant chair to be "no very great loss."

Considering the self-dependent development of the school-system, Zedlitz conceived the plan of organizing a supreme school-board, independent of the superior councils, which, beside the consistory, should have the supervision of the whole school administration in all the royal domains. This plan was carried out by Frederick William II in 1787. The board was to depend immediately on the king, and have charge of all the affairs which had till then been conducted by the chief trustees of the universities. It became the duty of all State collegiums, magistrates and public officers, to execute the orders of the chief school-board as rapidly as possible. At the head of this new board stood Von Zedlitz, and Wöllner, presidents of the privy council of the department of finances; and as members, the chaplain of the University of Halle, Von Hofmann, the consistorial counselor, Professor Steinbart, of Frankfort on the Oder, and

the gymnasium directors, Gedike and Meierotto, of Berlin, who were also commissioned to make the inspection visits through the provinces. The most important decree of this council, and the most fruitful in results, was the plan of instruction conceived by Gedike, under the coöperation of Meierotto, given December 28, 1788, and stating among other regulations that the final university examination of the school was to take place before the dismissal of the scholars.

A short time previous to this, however, a counter-movement had taken place in school and church affairs, by the withdrawal of the minister Zedlitz, and the subsequent election of the privy counselor, Wöllner, to the actual privy State and Law ministry, and as chief of the ecclesiastical department, (July 8, 1788,) which election found forthwith an expression in the religious edict of July 9, 1788. This edict was decidedly opposed to the so-called "rage of improvement, by which the respect for the Bible, as the revealed word of God, was calculated to grow weak, which falsified, distorted, and even rejected the divine records, concerning the welfare of the human race. A general rule of conduct was necessarily maintained, by which the masses could be led faithfully and honestly by their teachers in matters of faith, and this line of conduct had thus far been the Christian religion, as set forth by its three principal confessions." The edict of December 19, 1788, brought back into full force the censure on philosophical and theological writings, which in the last years of Frederic had lain dead, and men of a rationalistic cast of mind like Gedike lost their influence.

Niemeyer was threatened with suspension, and a circular addressed to all the inspectors of Kurmark stated, that to help towards the increase of neology, all newly-appointed teachers in the gymnasiums and city-schools should be made to sign a reciprocal agreement printed for that purpose, (1794.) On the 5th of February of the same year was published the general common law for the Prussian States, which, in part ii., tit. 12, declares schools and universities to be State institutions, and sets up a system of laws embracing the whole plan of instruction, of which the principal points are still in force.

Frederic William III., on his accession to the throne, November 16, 1797, sent on the 23d of the same month a cabinet order to the various departments, houses, and public authorities, cautioning them against the many unworthy subjects that had found means to get into office. Prompted by this message, Wöllner dispatched, December 5, 1797, a special order to the consistories, to remind all lower councils of their duties, and urge upon them a renewed vigilance in respect to the pastors and teachers under their special supervision, that these may not only teach religion in its purity and according to the prescription of the religious edict, but that they may also prove efficient and industrious in the discharge of their school and pastoral offices. Meanwhile, the counselor of the legation, Menken, who opposed the policy of Wöllner, had been appointed privy cabinet counselor to the king. The influence of this

gentleman upon the king determined Wöllner to issue, January 13, 1798, a circular in which he proposed to devise better means to advance the spirit of true religion and morality. But in spite of the readiness he showed to destroy his own work, he received a message disapproving his course, wherein the leading principle of government which actuated Frederic William III. is freely set forth: "I honor religion myself, and follow gladly its blissful precepts, and would not rule over a people that disregarded it. But I know also that it must come from the heart, from the feelings, from inner conviction; if degraded to a methodical restraint, if made a senseless babble, it will never promote virtue and honesty. Reason and philosophy must be its inseparable companions; only then will it exist of itself, and be able to maintain itself without the authority of those who would impose their dogmas upon future times, and prescribe to generations to come, how they should think and feel at all times and in all circumstances, on subjects that have the most important influence on their welfare." In spite of this reprimand, Wöllner continued in his own way of administration, and received in the early part of March his dismissal, as did the counselors of the chief consistory and the members of the chief school-college committee, who sympathized with him. There remained in the chief consistory, Andrew Jacob Hecker, who, like all those appointed after 1800—Zöllner, Nolte, Niemeyer, Sack, Ribbeck, Hanstein—were the right sort of men to carry out the cabinet order of January 11, 1798. Wöllner's place was filled by Von Massow, who was elected chief of the Lutheran and all ecclesiastical affairs, and the school department in general. The church affairs of the Roman Catholics were connected with the former, but the school affairs of the German Reformed Church came under a special department, of which Thulemeyer was chief. Both ministers were designated as ministers of State of the Judicial Department. The chief of the Lutheran party was also president of the chief consistory and chief school-board, of the directory of the poor in Berlin and Potsdam, of the privy high court, and of the court of credit system of the rural districts of East Prussia and Pomerania. The Lutheran school affairs of Silesia, conducted by the chief president of the Breslau bailiff administration, and the Roman Catholic, ecclesiastical and school affairs in Silesia, South Prussia, New East Prussia, and in the Frankish Principalities, that come within the administration of the province ministers, were outside his jurisdiction. In the latter, the Erlangen University came under the supervision of the minister Hardenberg. This dismemberment did not allow of constructing and pursuing a consistent plan for a satisfactory development of the mental and moral faculties of the people: the Prussian nation was composed of too many elements.

Soon followed a period of the severest trial and of the most spirited advancement. The words of the king, (August 10, 1807:) "The State must regain in mental force what it has lost in physical force," became henceforth the guiding star of the Prussian government. By the new

organization of the State councils, in 1808, the chief school-college was dissolved, and the administration of public instruction was attached to the Ministry of the Interior, under the name of "*Third Section, for Worship and Public Instruction*," and placed under the immediate direction of a privy State counselor and section chief. The king appointed as minister the count of Dohna, and as chief of the third section, William von Humboldt, who united in the rarest manner all the qualities of a statesman and a scholar, and who, free from all selfish motives, was best calculated to fulfill the high charge intrusted to him, viz., the regeneration of Prussia. An educational system was the regeneration the Prussian monarchy aimed at, but the limited financial means of the State set obstacles to the plans the great Humboldt had conceived, and the latter, discouraged by continual pecuniary impediments, resigned, June 28, 1810, the position he had entered upon December 17, 1808.

Nicolovius and Suvern had been elected with him as technical counselors, to take charge of the section of instruction. Nicolovius had previously been secular consistorial counselor, and member of the East Prussian consistories, then representative counselor in the university affairs at Königsberg, and finally member of the department of ecclesiastical affairs and those concerning the schools and the poor, and had in the latter time been in constant intercourse with the most distinguished men of the State. His fine and gentle appearance, the close intimacy in which he had stood for a long time with Goethe, Jacobi, and other superior and congenial minds, his firm faith in the progressive and magnificent development of our time, rendered him a worthy co-laborer of Humboldt. He remained through many changes in the clerical ministry until May 22, 1839. Suvern brought into his new position, beside his vast scientific acquirements, a great experience in the profession of teaching, which he had obtained in the discharge of the duties of two directorships, at Thorn and Elbing, and during his academical career at Königsberg. He drafted the most important regulations and instructions, which the reorganization of the higher school-system required; for example, the subject of the examination of the candidates for the higher school office, of July 12, 1810, the examination of abiturientes, of June 25, 1812, and an essay on general instruction, in 1816, of which all was not published, but whose leading principles dictated the regulations of the administration. He submitted to the consideration of the State's ministry, a general plan for the form of government of the school system in Prussia, according to the cabinet order of November 3, 1817, in which it was said, "that the success of all that the State aimed at by its constitution, legislation and administration, depended on the foundations laid in the minds of the young," but the diverging and conflicting opinions, on the time and mode of putting portions of the plan into effect, prevented its execution. Subsequent to 1818, he confined himself almost entirely to the reports of the Academy of Sciences and to the sphere of activity of the co-directors in the department of instruction; he died October 2, 1829.

Humbold's place, at the head of the third section of public worship, was filled by the privy State counselor Von Schuckmann; and Nicolaius was appointed director for the specialities of the same; even when Schuckmann was elected Minister of the Interior, in 1814, the administration of public culture and instruction remained for some time within his jurisdiction. On the 8d of November, 1817, a cabinet order declared that "the Minister of the Interior should resign the office of culture and public instruction, as well as that of the department of medicine, connected with it," inasmuch as "the dignity and importance of the ecclesiastical and educational affairs demand a special minister," and Baron von Altenstein was selected for that office.

The energetic and effectual activity which, since 1814, the government displayed in the transformation and reconstruction of the higher institutions of learning, gained an intelligent and well-informed guide in Altenstein, and after him in Dr. Johannes Schulze, (1st August, 1818,) a new life giving power, that made itself felt throughout the whole field of the sciences. About the same time, Hegel was appointed professor of philosophy in the University of Berlin, where, particularly favored by the educational system, he exercised a mighty influence upon the mental development of his contemporaries, opening on all sides new avenues to science, and working out through a well-sustained method the taming curb that was to lead thought to the recognition of truth.

A glowing testimony of the organizing, regulating, and all-pervading spirit of the administration, is the large number of special and general amendments that appear in the higher school-system, which, during the Altenstein administration, (from 1817 till the death of the minister, May 14, 1840,) amounted, including those of the University concerning the last examination, June 4, 1834, to 788, all of which, special as well as general, contain much that is awakening and fertilizing to the mind, and in many instances, far outreach their immediate circle of action. That regulation formed an important clause in the reorganization system of the higher court. It was the result of years of experience, and of the mature consideration of circumstances. There would necessarily follow from it a better and greater unanimity in systems of instruction, and in the classifications of the various *gymnasiums*. In subsequent times, and till Altenstein's death, there were 438 more amendments made, among which the ministerial regulation of Oct. 24, 1837, is accounted the most important for its laying down the fundamental conditions by which *gymnasial* instruction was to be governed. It was the first time that a general *Normal School* system was devised for all *gymnasiums*. Its principles were adopted and followed until 1856.

The political changes, whose causes and reasons are sufficiently known, made in 1819 a painful break in the promising condition of the higher school instruction, and called forth the circular of the minister of Altenstein, which, addressed to the various presidents of educational institutions, ran as follows, in its introductory pages: "Recent events, and

especially the late reports in the 85th session of the German League, in Frankfort on the Main, concerning the abuses and the degeneracy which have been discovered in the German school and university affairs, oblige me to make an earnest appeal to all principals of schools and heads of gymnasiums and universities, to give particular and renewed attention to the abuses and errors which have been found in the school administration, and to exert all their power to oppose their influence, and prevent their further development." The object of the new measures was to inspire the young with an active love for their king and their country, and to enforce a severe discipline which, whilst its ruling motive was to treat the young with mildness and kindness, would also command obedience, industry and good morals, and make the strict observance of the existing laws their most sacred duty." A few years previous, the whole Prussian nation, and particularly the higher schools, had given to the world a glowing testimony of their love of king and country. The extraordinary events of that time, the great deeds, in which partly teachers and pupils participated, or which they encouraged by the vivid interest and the self-sacrificing spirit they manifested, could not help exercising a wonderful influence, and kindling a noble enthusiasm, that tended naturally to raise the intellect and sentiments of the younger generation, and leave, even in the subsequent years of peace, a lasting impression on their minds. We can not deny that war engendered among the school-going population a certain roughness, sturdiness and stubbornness, but the noble virtues of which they gave such ample proofs, and which filled their contemporaries and posterity with admiration, should have protected them from suspicion, and from the severe measures that originated with the above-mentioned mandate. One of its most painful regulations was that which put the higher school direction under the supervision of the police, by limiting, on May 21, 1824, and without the knowledge of the ministry of Altenstein, the kind and benevolent Nicolovius to his clerical department, and appointing the director of the police ministry, Von Kamptz, in connection with his official duties, director of the educational department. In 1825, Von Kamptz was released from his duties in the Ministry of the Interior and Police administration, and appointed director of the Law department, but he preserved his position in the educational department until February 9, 1832. A cabinet order of the 4th of March of the same year, reinvested Nicolovius, to the great joy of Altenstein, with the direction of the educational department, which position he was still filling in the last weeks of the year 1830.

Although Von Kamptz had, by his friendly and polite manners, considerably tempered the feeling of fear and humility which had come over the educational world at his appointment as their chief, yet nothing could obliterate the painful impression which the mandate of the Ministry of the Interior and of the Police, addressed to the various administrations, made on the school-people, May 25, 1824, and which commences as follows:—"The irrefutable proofs we have that the rules and measures

recommended and prescribed till now, have not been able to suppress the injurious and erroneous sentiments, and false opinions still existing here and there amidst the higher and lower educational establishments, have determined his Majesty to issue still more positive commands on this subject." These commands concerned particularly the universities; and from that time the teacher became also subject to the strictest watchfulness of the government, the royal administrations being particularly requested to see that the younger public officers, whether in the service of the administration proper, or in that of any other public office, did not carry into their profession the injurious principles of the student life and its associations. During the following years there appeared, first, the cabinet order of August 16, 1826, in regard to the proceedings against faulty service and moral trespasses, in the question of pensions; second, that of September 24, 1827, in regard to the propriety of an inquest, in an administrative sense, into the case of civil officers who had come under judicial examination, but had not been dismissed from service; third, that of March 27, 1831, in regard to the application of the two preceding resolutions to teachers of high-schools and universities; fourth, that of June 20, 1833, in the form of a royal circular to all the school-boards of the provinces, concerning the political opinions of teachers and pupils, wherein the various administrations were again admonished to have an eye upon the teachers in this respect, and on the responsibility of the boards and their several members to report to the ministry all traces of antagonistic feelings and opinions.

The real consequences of such measures, called forth, in other countries, by ever recurring attempts at revolution, were not by any means as great as the anxiety that had dictated them. There was no occasion to apply them, and the administration of the educational bureau was too generous to spy out delinquencies of that kind. There existed also among the teachers of Prussian high-schools, the good, old Prussian principle, not to separate the love of country from the obedience due to the king, and the men who had actively lived through the troubles and the rise of Prussia, or had grown up under the burden of its misfortunes and had finally shared in its glory, offered to the educational administration, by their noble self-sacrifice, and their higher ideal of the profession of teacher, material for the culture of the people, such as few administrations had yet had at their command.

One of the most important changes in the administration was that decreed by the royal cabinet order, December 31, 1825, by which the school council (collegium) of the provinces were separated from the consistories; the first were clothed with their own independent supervision over the higher school-establishments; the second retained the right and duty to take part in the inspection of religious instruction. The higher private-schools came generally under the control of the government. Amongst the most important measures which originated principally under the influence of John Schulze, may be named that which laid aside the

parallel and section system, and introduced, in 1820, the general class system, appointing a regular professor for every class. Further are to be mentioned among the number of resolutions, the instruction for gymnasium directors, who, with the exception of those of the Rhine countries, (1839,) belong to the years 1823 to 1828; the ministerial resolution of September 24, 1826, respecting the pedagogic proof-year of the candidates for teaching, the regulation of April 20, 1831, for the examination of the candidates for higher teaching, wherein also the general school affairs are duly considered.

The harmony in which the regulations and promoting measures of the school-administration stood with the all-pervading enthusiasm of those who had made it their duty to carry them out, brought the school affairs, under the Altenstein administration, to such a flourishing condition, that their renown spread not only over the whole of Europe, but reached the furthest shores of the oceans, and attracted from all sides zealous disciples of the profession of teaching, and ambassadors from foreign governments, who came to examine for themselves in Prussia, what could and should be done for schools. The best testimony of this is Cousin's own words, in his Report entitled, "*Etat de l'instruction secondaire dans le royaume de Prusse pendant 1831*," (Paris, 1834,) wherein, for a complete organization of public instruction, he states the four following points: 1, that boys and girls without exception should attend the elementary schools; 2, the middle class of the city population to have its schools; 3, a sufficient number of young men of the middle and higher ranks should attend the lower classes of the gymnasiums together; 4, a good number of these, according to their industry and capacity, should attend the higher classes, and thence proceed to the university; adding, "*Cet idéal est à peu près réalisé en Prusse.*" Friedrich Thiersch expressed himself in the same way in his Report on the reorganization of secondary schools in Bavaria, on "*The Present Condition of Public Instruction in the Western States of Germany: Stuttgart and Tübingen, 1838.*" "I found myself there," he says, "(Coblenz, September, 1834,) in a land which, for an observer in public instruction, is of much importance, and which, by its institutions of learning, its spirit of order, its administration, and the results obtained, had attracted the attention, yea even the admiration of foreign countries."

After the death of Altenstein, King Frederic William IV. appointed Dr. Eichhorn as minister of ecclesiastical affairs. He had been one of the most active supporters of the aggrandizement of Prussia against French supremacy. In 1817 he was called by the special confidence of the king, into the newly organized State councils, and since 1831, he filled, amidst general appreciation and esteem, the position of director in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. His continued and lively intercourse with the most distinguished scholars of Berlin, his friendly intimacy with Schleiermacher and many other men of distinction in science and theology, his whole past life, devoted to the interest of Prussia and in support of its noble

efforts, caused his appointment to be hailed on all sides as a most fortunate one. And yet, through the very power of circumstances, was he carried away into such an opposition to all the ruling efforts of the time, that perhaps there never was another administration whose beginning and end gave rise to such differences of opinion. The attitude which Eichhorn took towards the Hegelian philosophy, till then almost exclusively in favor, and which he considered to produce nothing but dialectical sleights of hand, and as tending to undermine the Christian principle of life, his faith drawing ever closer to orthodoxy, had to be adjusted in the higher school-administration by different views and principles. He had certainly only undertaken the Ministry when he saw that his private conviction was in perfect harmony with the opinion of the king, and he was persuaded that when the views and ideas of the king were properly understood, treated as a unity, and carried out, there would be more cause than ever before to hope for the regeneration of Prussia and Germany—a regeneration which would give entire satisfaction to all free-thinking and reasonable wishes, and to all just demands.

The condition of public instruction was a cardinal object of the king's solicitude. It can not be denied that in the last twenty years the gymnasiums had to contend with much that was unfavorable. The new impulse given to industrial pursuits cast a certain reproach upon gymnasial studies, and made them appear superfluous; and seemed to require another species of high-schools, in which the realistic and practical should be recognized and provided for. The teacher could see in the younger generation a kind of pantheistical turn of mind which appeared unfavorable to Christianity. An ever greater disproportion in the outward circumstances of the teacher, with the increasing wealth that seemed to reach every one but him, became sensibly apparent; finally the unusual zeal with which everywhere higher culture was encouraged, had formed for the State, the Church, and the profession of teaching a greater number of individuals than could be well employed, and these had not yet found, after going through college, their adequate circle of activity in other spheres of life. Many of those also who had been educated in the so-called practical schools, had not yet learned to apply their acquired knowledge to their several trades, and to raise them in value. Eichhorn wished to remedy all these evils, and to satisfy all just demands. He aimed to give to the higher school-administration such an organization as would enable its members to take a more life-inspiring view of the actual condition of the schools, and a more active coöperation in their welfare. He was resolved to organize, under the name of supreme school-council, a higher, technical school-committee or section, which, for the administration of the inner life of the public establishments of learning, should enter into all the questions touching the qualifications of the teacher, the object, methods, and necessary means of teaching, and provide for this work a sufficient number of theoretical and practical men already eminent in the profession. The events of March 18, 1848, de-

prived him of his position and frustrated the realization of his plans.* The only lasting change that was made during his administration, was the re-introduction of gymnastics, by a cabinet order, June 6, 1842; and according to the king's own wish, this branch of instruction was made an integral part in the education of the people.

A few weeks after Eichhorn, Dr. Eiler also left the ministry, (Dec. 30, 1848.) He had been previously gymnasium director at Kreuznach, then school-counselor at Coblenz, and since December 1, 1840, co-laborer in the Ministry, where, October 30, 1848, he was elected speaker of the council-chamber. He enjoyed the particular confidence of his minister, and coöperated in the department of education for the high-schools, when it came to a question of morals, or to fill the vacancies of directors and teachers.

As Eichhorn could not expect of his counselors to be active, where he himself could not act according to his inner conviction, he had intrusted the conduct of the evangelical gymnasium affairs to Kortüm, privy counselor of the supreme court, who till then had had charge of the public instruction. Having previously been director of a gymnasium and schoolmaster of Dusseldorf, the latter was perfectly competent to undertake the gymnasium affairs. Prudent and considerate, he avoided making any unnecessary changes. John Schulze retained his position as reporter of universities, in which, after fifty years of service, he died, privy supreme counselor, regretted by all who had appreciated his high merits and the eminent services he had rendered to public education. Amidst the confusion and conflicting opinions of 1848 and the years following, when Count of Schwerin till June 25, Rodbertus till July 3, and Von Ladenberg as commissioner till December 19, 1850, conducted the ministerial affairs, Kortüm acted as mediator in the administration, and endeavored to soothe and harmonize if possible the antagonistic elements of that time. After a repeated and violent call for a closer connection between the higher private schools and the so-called real schools, he inclined towards the idea of fusing into one the three lower classes of the two institutions, but the transactions of the country school-conference, of which he was president from April 16 till May 11, 1849, and still more the discussion on the education laws in the ministry itself, brought him back to the opinion that the principle upon which the gymnasiums and real schools were based, should be considered as an independent one. He retired from public life, June 7, 1852. His place was filled by Dr. L. Wiese, then professor in the Joachim gymnasium, previously privy state counselor and inspector of the higher academies.

From 1850 to November 8, 1858, the ministerial affairs were conducted by Von Raumer. The latter found no occasion to make any radical changes in the high-school administration, and made it his chief duty to direct well and improve what had already been done. In this, however,

* See *Eichhorn Ministry*, by a Colleague. Berlin: 1849. *My Pilgrimage through Life*, by Dr. Gerd. Eilers; vol. iv. Leipzig: 1858.

he found various opportunities for improvements; among these may be named the changes made in 1856, in the recitation system and the regulations for the examinations, both of which tended towards a simplification and greater concentration in instruction. He made it his chief object to see personally after the inner and outer welfare of all the institutions of learning, having the most distant ones visited by departmental counselors of the ministry, and attending to those of the capital himself. The better to train young teachers for the profession, it was thought worth while to induce distinguished schoolmen to adopt as disciples young philologists and mathematicians, that they might learn the art of teaching. Under his administration, fourteen gymnasiums were founded, and the position of the gymnasium teachers improved by an increase of salary of 18 per cent.

Von Raumer's resignation gave the conduct of ministerial affairs to Von Bethmann-Hollweg, whose independent and dignified manners, and political talents, as well as his high intellectual and scientific merits, raised many expectations and ardent hopes. But his short administration, which lasted only till March 10, 1862, interrupted as it was by political party troubles, allowed him only to carry out what was already begun. It proved, however, an important one for the real schools and the higher private schools, which, by the instruction and regulation of October 6, 1859, received an independent organization. As reference to his administration, he published in 1860 a report, under the name "Central Journal of all Educational affairs."

He was succeeded by Von Müller, who till then had occupied the position of president of the supreme church-council, and since 1840 had been co-laborer and speaker in the ministry. His career was marked by a great activity for improvements, by various foundations of higher institutions and generous endowments, and by the care he took and the judgment he showed in promoting the development and formation of the higher instruction.

The affairs of the Catholic schools were, since 1839, conducted in the ministry by Brüggemann, who displayed in the discharge of his duties much zeal and circumspection. He was born, March 31, 1796. In 1823 he was second director of the gymnasium of Düsseldorf, and stood next to Kortüm, at the same time consistory-counselor. In 1831 he was made State and school-counselor at Coblenz, and in 1837 was called to the ministry of Berlin, and sent to Rome as mediator during the ecclesiastical disputes of that time. In 1839 he became co-laborer in the ministry; in 1841, privy State counselor; in 1861, privy supreme State counselor. He died March 31, 1866, shortly after having tendered the resignation of his office, which he had held to the satisfaction of all parties. The province school-counselor of Breslau, Dr. Stieve, succeeded him as privy State counselor.

B. SINGLE PROVINCES.

During the gradual development of a central administration in the Prussian States, it was a necessary condition of things, that the various

peculiarities of the single territories in their school-administration should be retained. The General Directory instituted by Frederic William I. embraced four Departments, as follows:—1, Prussia, Pomerania, Newmark; 2, Minden, Ravensberg, Tecklenburg, Linzen; 3, Kurmark, Magdeburg, Halberstadt; 4, Geldern, Cleves, Mörs, Neufchatel. After 1750, the supervision of public instruction in the whole kingdom was conducted by the consistories of the provinces, together with distinguished doctors and professors of theology, the whole under the general inspection of the higher consistories of Berlin. Silesia had its own high consistories at Breslau, Brieg, and Glogau.

When, in 1808, the supreme administration of matters of instruction was given over to the Department of the Interior, the councils of the provinces received the name of governments; in each of these a Deputation for Public Worship and Instruction was established as a special council, to be under the immediate dependence of the section of the department belonging to the place. The regulation of October 27, 1810, ordered besides, three scientific deputations for public instruction in Berlin, Königsberg, and Breslau. Their office consisted in the examination of the candidates for the higher school profession, in plans of teaching, methods, and text-books, as well as all that related to the final examinations at the gymnasiums, (maturity examination, *Abiturienten Prüfungen.*) They were further to give their opinion on all that concerned the practical management of schools, and to maintain in use those principles of science from which the single maxims of administration are derived. They were also at liberty to send to the higher council any propositions or requests on the subject of education. The deputation in Berlin, to which, beside Nicolovius and Süvern, also Ancillon, Schleiermacher and Fr. A. Wolf belonged, was to take the place of the supreme school-board (*Oberschul-collegium.*) which had been abolished in 1808.

After the new division of the State, which comprised at first ten, then eight provinces, the direction of the affairs of public instruction was given to the chief president (*Oberpresident.*) of the several provinces. He presided over the consistory instituted in the principal city of the province. By the regulation of October 23, 1817, the consistories were to take charge of the internal affairs of the church and school, and the governments of their external affairs, especially of the administration of the church and school property. The scientific deputations were replaced by the literary commissions for examination. The consistories had also the right of inspection over the affairs of Roman Catholic schools and education, but the Catholic bishops retained their legal control over their form of government and religious instruction, and had the nomination of their special religious teachers. For the affairs of secondary schools of the province school-collegiums, (*Provincial schul-collegien.*) were instituted, in 1826, separated from the consistorium entirely in 1845, and the separation of funds followed in 1848. The whole of the administration of the property of the institutions belonging to the school-colle-

giums passed with few exceptions over to these. The seats of school-collegiums are established in Königsberg, Posen, Breslau, Stettin, Magdeburg, Munster, Coblenz, Berlin.

The instructions of May 14, 1829, imposed on the general superintendents the duty of directing their special attention towards the religious and clerical tendency of the higher academies and private schools; they could be represented in their school-inspection by members of the royal consistories and by consistorial representative school-counselors of the royal governments. For the appointment of religious teachers, a unanimous vote of the church and school-councils is necessary. Religious instruction can only be intrusted to those teachers or clergymen, against whom the respective church-councils make no objection. New religious text-books can only be introduced with the approbation of the church-councils. Where there is a board of trustees, it is the custom to appoint the first clergymen of the place as one of them.

I. *Prussia*. It was among the great masters of the religious orders of the country, and particularly through Winrich von Kniprode (1351-1382,) that the first efforts were made for the establishment of schools. "It is absolutely necessary," said he, "that, not only a few, but many schools be established in Prussia." Notwithstanding this earnest advice, however, it was only after Albert of Brandenburg (1510-1568) that Latin schools were established, and that, in the principal cities only. These, however, increased and improved considerably after the introduction of the Reformation. After the conquest of Western Prussia in 1772, the valid school-laws of Eastern Prussia were established in the new countries also, and the schools of the Jesuits partly organized into royal Catholic gymnasiums. At the second division of Poland, in 1793, by which, under the name of South Prussia, with the exception of Posen, the cities of Danzig and Thorn with their old schools were incorporated, the ratification patent recommended, concerning the institution of religious and civil judicature in the new province, that, to secure peace and happiness for the annexed country, it was necessary to give special care and attention to education, and called upon the churches and schools to further this object. That portion of Poland which became Prussia's share in the third division, in 1795, was lost again by the peace of Tilsit (1807,) and finally annexed to Russia in 1815. Many and various obstacles still prevent the successful development of the higher schools in this province. The scholars, particularly in the smaller towns, belong mostly to the lower ranks—enter the higher schools only when already advanced in years, and suffer especially from the pressure of domestic circumstances.

II. *Posen*. That portion of South Prussia which, falling back to the kingdom, was constituted into a separate province, under the name of the Grand Duchy of Posen, received no special laws for its school-administration, but became subject to the general rules. It contained in 1815 only two higher academies: the gymnasium (*Syndikan-gymnasium*) for both confessions at Posen, and the school at Lissa. Since then, the royal

government, and following the latter's example, the cities also, have made it an object to promote higher education, and succeeded in establishing nine gymnasiums, one progymnasium, five independent real-schools of the first class, among which are four gymnasiums, one royal real-school, four gymnasiums, three real-schools, a municipal progymnasium, one real-school of mixed patronage; as Catholic institutions, two gymnasiums, three simultaneous gymnasiums, a progymnasium, and two real-schools.

The gymnasium at Trzemeszno was abolished for political reasons in 1863. Particular arrangements had to be made for this province on account of the mixed character of its population. The clerical supervision council for the evangelical institutions and the evangelical religious instruction, is the royal consistory and the general superintendent at Posen, and for the Roman Catholic department, the archbishop of Gnesen and Posen. The great number of Jewish pupils necessitated municipal patronage for Jewish religious instruction. In regard to the German and Polish languages, the instructions of May 24, 1842, provided, without however establishing by it an invariable regulation, that in the Mariengymnasium at Posen and the lately abolished one at Trzeeneszno, as well as in those established in the Southern portion, such teachers should if possible be appointed for the four lower classes, as were sufficiently conversant with both languages, so that every pupil could receive religious instruction in his mother tongue. In all other branches of education, the teacher was to impart instruction in the Polish tongue, using the German somewhat, but taking special care that the pupils receive a clear and distinct idea of the subject in hand. The pupils obtained thus before leaving the third class (*Tertia*) an easy and correct understanding of the German language. In the second class (*Secunda*) the German became the principal medium of instruction, together with the study of the Latin and Greek authors, alternately translated either into Polish or German, according to the special capacity of the teacher in either language. For the Polish tongue and literature the Polish was to be exclusively used, also for mathematics, physiology, and the study of French. The same course was to be pursued in the higher classes. At present, the German is, commencing in *Tertia*, the principal medium for instruction, embracing two-thirds of the whole course. The religious instruction for the Roman Catholics is given in Polish. The German pupils of this persuasion must necessarily suffer in this case, as the teacher can give them, after recitation, but a short and rapid review of the subject treated.

It has been impossible as yet to fuse and unify the various elements of the Prussian population, as the Poles, especially in their higher strata, preserve an inflexible nationality. The Polish youth of the higher schools took so lively a part in all political movements of their nation, that it became necessary for the Prussian government to use strong repressive measures. Many students, who had taken an active part in the revolution in 1830 and 1831, were, at their return, in spite of the general decree

of amnesty, shut out from the public institutions of learning, "in order to prevent the propagation of injurious opinions amongst a class of youth easily impressed either by good or bad principles." All subsequent political troubles that arose in the Grand Duchy, as well as in the kingdom, carried off with them a great number of young students. A similar movement also occasioned, in 1862, the closing of the gymnasium at Trzemeszno.

III. *Silesia.* The province of Silesia, since 1815, has been composed of the Silesian Grand Duchies, formerly governed by the Piast princes, and of a portion of the original Higher Saxony. Owing to the sovereign jurisdiction of the kings of Bohemia over the Silesian dukes, many relations were formed between the church and the school which in some degree are still valid. After the erection of Breslau into a bishopric, many parochial and convent-schools arose, which were gradually turned into Latin schools. But the establishment of new schools received very great encouragement, especially in Lower Silesia, by the spreading of the Reformation, as dukes, knights and cities rivaled each other in establishing new schools, and in perfecting and improving the already existing ones. The high-school at Goldberg, destroyed by the Thirty Years' War, in 1621, enjoyed under Valentin Trotzendorf, about the middle of the sixteenth century, a very high reputation. Amongst the still existing gymnasiums, the school at Beuthen flourished for a short time; it had been extended in the beginning of the seventeenth century, by the Baron Georg von Schönaich at Carolath, into a pedagogium, and connected with an academic gymnasium. Amongst its students was Martin Opitz. But this school also was destroyed by the first storms of the Thirty Years' War. This war opened the province to the Jesuits, who, before its close, had established colleges in all important towns, and exercised a great influence on education until their institutions passed again into other hands. The intervention of Charles XII. of Sweden, and the conquests of Frederic the Great, soon reinstated the Evangelical portion of the population into the full enjoyment of the rights and liberties which the peace of Westphalia had secured to them. After the abolition of the order of the Jesuits in 1773, Frederic II. converted their schools into royal gymnasiums, under the direction of their former Jesuits, with the name of priests of the royal school-institutes, and the proceeds from the sale of the Jesuits' lands were appropriated for the support of all Catholic gymnasiums of the province. The reorganizing of the plan of instruction was intrusted to the professor of mathematics, Zeplichal. According to the new school-regulation of December 11, 1774, the University of Breslau was to retain its four literary classes—grammar, aesthetics, philosophy and theology; the Catholic gymnasiums of Glatz, Neisse, Oppeln, Sagan, Liegnitz, only grammar and aesthetics; those of Glogau and Schweidnitz, grammar alone. As this school-organization did not prove beneficial, the preparation of a new plan of organization for Catholic schools was given to the professor of the Catholic gymnasium at Glogau, Sckeyde. The

plan which the latter laid out, and which from the character of the time had to meet if possible a universal purpose, comprised, along with the already very detailed prescriptions which formed the basis of the system, a great variety of subjects; such as declamation and the cultivation of taste, the philosophy of experience and logic, general and especially anthropological science, aesthetics, mythology, Roman antiquities, ancient geography, universal history, experimental physiology, the circle of the sciences, to all of which branches about an hour a week was devoted. This plan, drawn up for the Catholic gymnasiums, was published August 1, 1801. As the royal government of Breslau had instituted (October 27, 1810,) a clerical school-deputation, so was the new organization of secondary-school affairs also extended over the Catholic institutions, and, by the reunion of the university at Frankfort on the Oder with the Leopoldina at Breslau, August 8, 1811, the former connection of the Catholic gymnasiums with the university was entirely dissolved. The reduction of those higher schools that could easily be dispensed with, and which, besides, could afford but a bare existence, had, in a measure, already been accomplished by the cabinet order of July 8, 1798; such were those of Jauer, Freistadt, Bunglau, Löwenberg, and those founded at Rauden and Grüssau by the Order of the Cisterciens: they were gradually closed. On the other hand, the State took charge, from that time, of some of the new high-schools; others were founded or renewed by cities, and many of them, especially within the last twenty years, received considerable contributions from public funds.

Amongst the present gymnasiums, there are fifteen of them Evangelical, and eight Roman Catholic; the pro gymnasium is Evangelical, four Evangelical real schools, two united, the higher private-school Evangelical. The clerical supervision of the Catholic institutions belongs to the prince-bishop of Breslau, but the gymnasium of Leobschütz, by right of former custom, comes under that of the ducal-archbishop of Olmutz, and the gymnasium of Glatz under that of the ducal-archbishop of Prague. The active spirit of progress which distinguishes the Silesians has called forth considerable appropriations for public institutions, especially for scholars; for utraquists, for example, of the Catholic religion, (scholars who speak the German and Polish languages,) there are scholarships of the State and ducal-bishoprics.

IV. Pomerania. The original Slavonian population, with the exception of the Northeastern little province of Kassuben, became, after the introduction of Christianity, completely germanized. In 1456, Wratislaw IX. founded the University of Greifswald, as a scientific centre for the duchy; but, before the Reformation, there were but very small beginnings of schools. The Reformation accomplished by Bugenhagen and Knipstro, and zealously favored by the princes, gave rise to the establishment of a great number of private Latin schools. There appeared, especially after Bugenhagen's church and school regulations (1585 and 1583,) under princely protection or through the princes' means, and the wealth

of the Hanseatic towns, a number of gymnasiums and academies for the nobility; amongst these, the academic colleges of Stettin and Stargard held for a long time the first rank. When in 1804 a reorganization for the higher schools was contemplated, the originally Prussian parts of the province seemed to be sufficiently provided for in the gymnasiums of Stettin, Cöslin, and New Stettin, and in the four real-schools at Stargard, Anclam, Colberg and Stolpe, and in fact they met all the demands until lately, when the question of new gymnasiums and a change in the existing polytechnical schools came up, and was zealously discussed, especially by the wealthier communities of the towns; so that the province possesses now thirteen gymnasiums, one progymnasium, two polytechnical schools of the first class, two polytechnical schools connected with gymnasiums, the one of the first, the other of the second class; one independent grammar school, one higher grammar school connected with a gymnasium—all Evangelical, and of which a part is richly endowed with benefits for scholars and students. As a peculiarity of the new gymnasiums at Greiffenberg, Treptow on the Rhine, Stolpe, Colberg, and Pyritz, we may state the fact, that every teacher must bind himself by written agreement "to teach nothing contrary to the Word of God as contained in the religious works of the Evangelical community of the place, and expounded in the Lutheran catechism." These institutions, although subject, like the rest, to the consistory and general superintendence of church affairs, differ in this respect from the others who consider themselves as belonging to the united Evangelical Church of the State.

V. Saxony. This province consists, 1st, of the original Hohenzollern possessions, the Altmark: 2d, of the provinces annexed by the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, the Duchy of Halberstadt, the Duchy of Magdeburg and the Circle of Saal; 3d, of the lands acquired during the present century, the bishopric of Quedlinburg, the empire towns of Mühlhausen and Nordhausen, the electorate composed of the lands belonging to the Mayence circle, Erfurt and Eichsfeld, the archbishoprics of Merseburg and Naumburg-Zeitz, and the Circles of Wittemberg and Thuringen, formerly belonging to the kingdom of Saxony. The foundation of schools extends here as far back as the Carlovingian times and the Saxon emperors. In the fifteenth century these early schools were however already on the wane, and needed the new and invigorating life of the Reformation. Luther and Melancthon, as well as the Saxon princes, became the most zealous protectors of the schools, and the Saxon school regulation of 1523 became the new foundation for the administration of schools. From among the foundations of Duke Moritz of Saxony, the State-school of Pforta was made over to Prussia in 1815, and already before that time, from those of the counts and nobles, the schools of Eisleben, and the convent-schools of Roszleben and Donndorff. Among the Latin schools that were closed in the course of time, the pedagogium at Kloster Berge before Magdeburg was distinguished; it flourished particularly under the abbot Steinmetz (1732-62); but it was abolished by a decree of the

Westphalian government in 1809, and its buildings destroyed in 1814, during the French siege. Among its present higher institutions for learning are one Roman Catholic gymnasium, one gymnasium and one polytechnic school as simultaneous institutions; they are under Roman Catholic supervision, the bishop of Paderborn being inspector. No province possesses as many alumni connected with the higher institutions, and as many beneficently endowed schools. No province moreover has as many schools of old and well tried reputation, such as Schulpforta, and above all the Frankish foundations at Halle.

VI. *Westphalia.* The oldest possessions of Hohenzollern date from the seventeenth century, whilst the counties of Mark and Ravensberg fell to Brandenburg by heirloom, (1614,) and the secularized foundation of Minden, by the peace of Westphalia. The lands conquered by the peace of Luneville were mostly made over to the kingdom of Westphalia, but returned to Prussia in 1815, together with the whole of the Episcopal foundation of Münster, the Duchy of Westphalia, (Arnsberg,) the Principality of Lünen, etc.

For the establishment of schools in these countries, different religious orders—especially the Franciscan monks and later the Jesuits—had been already active at a very early date; an Evangelical gymnasium was founded at Hamm in 1657, by the prince-elector; the landowners and cities showed themselves also very active after the Reformation, in the establishment of Evangelical schools, so that Prussia gained by the annexation of this province, six Evangelical and three Catholic gymnasiums. Besides, several convent-schools, preparatory to the university, are now either transformed into gymnasiums or progymnasiums, or have entirely ceased to belong to the higher schools. Among the thirty of this kind existing at present, there are eight gymnasiums, five progymnasiums, one Catholic polytechnic school of the first class, the others Evangelical. The diocesan council for the Catholic schools in the governmental district of Münster are the bishop of Münster, and for the other parts, the bishop of Paderborn. Most institutions have benevolent endowments both for pupils and students; for the Catholics born in the province there are in Cologne and Mayence old and largely endowed foundations. One of the peculiar institutions in this province is the Evangelical gymnasium, founded at Gütersloh, during the stormy period of 1848. In the fear of the State becoming atheistical, and that the existing schools under its supervision might fall off from the established Church, the plan was conceived to create new gymnasiums, independent of the State, and of a decided Christian evangelical character. This plan however was only carried out at Gütersloh, after a voluntary contribution of 20,000 florins had been collected. The institution was opened as a "higher private academy," June 15, 1851. It is governed by a board of trustees consisting of twelve persons, most of whom are clergymen, elected among themselves by mutual consent. The king, Frederic William IV., was so interested in this institution, that he himself laid, March 26, 1852, the corner-

stone of the new school-building. In 1854 the institution was recognized as a gymnasium. Its first closing examination (graduate) (*Abiturienten Prufung*) had already taken place at Easter, 1853; and at Christmas, 1863, one hundred and forty-one graduates (*Abiturienten*) were examined, which, from an average number of two hundred pupils, is the largest number of graduates any institution has yet had to show. Half of these graduates passed over to the study of theology.

At the recovery of the province, the consistorial school-counselor, Frederic Kohlrausch (1818-1830,) under the first president, Von Vincke, took the most active part in the direction of school affairs, and by his personal influence upon the directors and teachers, as well as by his excellent measures of administration and the zeal with which he endeavored to spread a freer literary culture among the better classes, won for himself a lasting reputation.

VII. *Province of the Rhine, and districts of Hohenzollern.* This large province, comprising six governmental districts and one hundred and thirty-nine cities, with over three millions of inhabitants, belongs (1815) to the former possessions of Prussia: the duchy of Cleves (1614,) the ducal county of Môrs (1702,) a portion of the duchy of Gueldre (1713,) and the lands conquered by the peace of Vienna, eighty states originally belonging to the Empire; the largest part belonged to the Palatinate, and to the Electorate-ducal archbishoprics, Treves and Cologne, secularized in 1803.

The foundation of schools in these countries extends as far back as Charlemagne; religious orders developed them, especially that of the Jesuits, whose schools, richly endowed and with wholly gratuitous instruction, attracted many pupils, even after the Reformation, which had also gained much ground in the Rhine countries. Evangelical schools arose principally as institutions of cities and church communities. The French occupation (1794-1814,) transforming every thing regardless of all territorial relations, brought about also a complete change in school affairs, remodeling these according to French principles, which required again a thorough retransformation as soon as the foreign sway was annulled. The central administration of the allies organized, in 1814, the general governments of Berg, Middle-Rhine, and Low-Rhine, which, united in 1815, came under the direction of the Prussian Privy State counselor Sack, who till then had been general governor of the Low-Rhine, and as early as March, 1814, had directed his particular attention to the schools. There were about this time in the whole province, six high-schools, which might, in a certain degree, be considered as gymnasiums; in all the general governments of the Lower and Middle Rhine, only three gymnasiums: those of Cleves, Môrs and Kreuznach, of which the two first died entirely out under the French dominion, and the last was already in its death-struggle. A number of decrees, it is true, drove from the convent-schools the monkish spirit, but put in its stead, French Napoleonism, which made every thing conform to military power

and to the universal dominion of the great Empire. The majority of teachers slavishly bent the knee before the despotism of French school-inspectors. The French language was to be the only medium of instruction; teachers that were not masters of it were dismissed. To study the Greek and Roman classics was, in the eyes of the Grand Master of the French University, altogether superfluous, since the French literature presented far greater models, and in every species of style. Why direct the public mind upon the heroes of antiquity, when the mind of the French people contained and united, all that ever any nation developed in greatness, power and heroism, and when the hero of the French nation, obscured the glory of all former heroes? A third of the time was devoted to French grammar and reading, another third to Latin rhetoric, and the last third to all sorts of curiosities, with no other aim than that of amusement. As accessories served the so-called *Silentien* (study-hours,) a sort of review of the lessons, under the eye and constant direction of the teacher. The French university system recognized only two sorts of high-schools: 1, the lyceums of the State, and 2, the colleges and secondary-schools supported by the communities. The colleges of the first degree resembled the lyceums in a great measure, differing more in form than in substance, the form being wholly military.

The Lyceum system found a readier acceptance on the left shore of the Rhine than on the right; the Lyceum of Bonn and the College of Cologne working itself zealously up into a lyceum, gave but feeble promises. Amongst the colleges of the second degree, there were a few private institutions over which presided a principal, with a faculty of his own choice. These establishments were under strict control, but even those were not organized in the spirit of the administration, and were left without sufficient support; even the money they did receive was of no great use either to the teachers or to the pupils.

Those colleges that refused to accommodate themselves to the domineering spirit of the foreign power, lost generally all they possessed. Their endowments, the income of which served to pay the teachers' salary, was confiscated as public property, and such as in some special cases was left them, was very carelessly managed. From the confiscated lands, a miserable pension was allowed to the teachers, and gradually all courage and enthusiasm for the profession, as well as the confidence of the public, were destroyed. The number of teachers and pupils grew less and less; no one wished to engage in a profession that presented neither a comfortable nor an honorable living. What thus remained of the colleges was generally confined to a few members of the religious orders, who served both in church and school, and enjoyed benefices; men that had no other object in school-teaching than to fulfill the duty imposed upon them by the Church or the rules of their Order. Among the larger schools for the training of teachers, in which a few lucrative chairs were left, all the higher and better positions were filled by Frenchmen, either natives or that had become French; the middle ranks were

provided by some of the former teachers, and the lower by young routinists (*routiniers*) who had never enjoyed a high literary culture, and who, by continuous experimenting, hoped to acquire a certain practice of teaching. These positions, of so-called *maitres supplémentaires, et d'étude*, served, in the absence of regular seminaries, as institutions for the preparation of the future teachers of the higher schools. Among the twenty schools for the training of teachers, five only had a sufficient number of professors, as many had only three professors, and three of them but one. Of the 92 Catholic gymnasium professors, none had visited a German University abroad; most had received their education in religious seminaries or in the decaying University of Cologne; a third of them finally had stepped right from the school-room into the professor's chair.

In order to improve the condition of the schools for the training of teachers, the collection of the arrears which several communities had to pay to their schools, according to budget duty, was zealously carried on, and a number of schools received considerable help and contributions from the treasury of the State. For the improvement of their internal condition, the Director of Public Instruction of the Lower-Rhine, Grasshof, afterwards consistorial school-counselor (1841,) issued a preliminary instruction to the effect, that an effort should be made to harmonize, if possible, the monachal system of instruction which, strangely mixed as it was with the Parisian University maxims, seemed to prevail still almost everywhere, and the ruling principles of the gymnasiums of the North of Germany; combining, as it were, the two. For that purpose, school and academic instruction should be kept apart; the Greek language and history should resume their respective places, and the usurpating foreign language be again replaced by the mother tongue. This was a hard task for the teachers; but it was only after such a beginning that the Department of Education could in future prepare and issue with any effect, general school regulations. The new spirit of reform had to proceed from single enlightened points, and the city of Cologne, before all other cities of the four Rhenish departments, was best calculated for such an attempt. Its antique dignity, its importance during the middle ages, its spiritual sway over all the Catholic countries around, and its literary taste, rendered it worthy to become the central point of high culture. This state of feeling was specially strengthened by two important facts, viz., its relatively larger number of suitable teachers, and the ever growing desire of the inhabitants to do away with French forms in its colleges. When the finances so badly administered by the existing school-commission were at last regulated, a beginning was made in 1815 to bring about the organization of the new Gymnasium, which was to take the place of both the colleges of the first and second degree. The applicants for professorships had to pass a severe examination, but all attempts to fill the higher chairs with capable men of the Catholic persuasion remained fruitless; the demands made upon the professors had come

considerably down, in order to enable the authorities to fill the gaps. This reform, by which true merit recovered its due rights, called back among the better teachers their enthusiasm for their profession, and the unity of purpose brought back again the unity of spirit, which had become lost among the teachers of the former institution. The schools for teachers of the Middle Rhine needed the same reform, but none of them possessed with the same receptibility for improvement, the necessary means to bring about the required change; it was even difficult to keep the colleges of Bonn and Coblenz from falling below their former condition.

As little as could be done in the latter part of 1815 for the teachers' schools, by way of donations to further the means of improvement; as little as the administration seemed disposed to take decided steps in the matter, helping only in extraordinary cases, nevertheless, and just at that time was the foundation laid for the internal improvement of these institutions, and that so much the deeper, as the sense of an earnest and thorough study of the classics had grown more vivid. The mathematics and history were gradually reinstated into their former rights; the study of the mother tongue, of its origin and progress, drove away the foreign language, and the old uniformity and superficial mode of study retired evermore into the background. Although this could only be said of a few enlightened points, and although in the smaller colleges and amidst the old teachers the old track of study was still in force, yet might it be considered as quite a gain, that such enlightened points, however few, existed in the province.

The gymnasium of Treves had lately been brought under Prussian administration, but was neither sufficiently endowed to defray expenses, nor possessed a sufficient corps of teachers. When through the Peace of Vienna, Prussia lost Lüttich, Aix-la-Chapelle claimed for the North-western part of its school-governments a greater attention from the administration; the gymnasium of that place was the only one from which a better spirit could emanate, and influence the smaller institutions of the same kind. The new gymnasium of Cologne, which by the accession of Director Franz Jos. Seber, 1815-19, (formerly professor at Aschaffenburg, afterwards professor of theology in the University of Bonn,) became at that time fully consolidated, verified the firmness of the ground upon which it had been erected. The new system of recitation carried out conscientiously in all its parts, according to the given regulations, the ardor and zeal equally obvious in both teachers and pupils, to enter not only into the outer form of these regulations but into their spirit also, the results of the last quarterly examination, the admirable discipline and order, the esteem and love the new Director had inspired in his colleagues and pupils, and the universal confidence he and his institution enjoyed amongst the public—all this gave sufficient proof of the excellence of the school, and secured its influence for laying the foundation of a still higher culture through the whole province.

The wisdom which presided over the reorganization of this and the other high-schools, namely, to reach gradually and not all at once, a higher degree of perfection, and to lay greater stress upon the capacity of individuals than upon mere rules, secured so much surer a passage from the old to the new, as by it the sunken rocks upon which they might have been wrecked were thus carefully avoided.

The sooner there was an inclination to favor a serious and thorough study of the ancients, the more the necessity for a firm foundation in this branch was accepted and recognized by the gymnasium, the more the conviction spread that in the vast domain of the mathematics, and in the inexhaustible depths of history, lay the rich stores for the mind and sensibilities of men, the more ardent became the desire for a University in the German sense of the word, a University from which alone teachers could be expected, that would carry out its views and would be imbued with its spirit. A petition to that effect was laid before the ministry, to urge upon the king the foundation of a University on a large scale in the city of Bonn, which petition was also granted on the 18th of October, after the closing of the older universities in 1818.

The words of the proclamation of Frederic William III., April 5, 1815, addressed to the Prussian Rhine countries:—"I will reopen for your children the institutions for public instruction which have been so neglected under the pressure of the last administration," were faithfully kept. The province possesses now twenty-four gymnasiums, fourteen progymnasiums, ten real schools of the first order, two real schools of the second order, ten higher burgher schools, of which fourteen gymnasiums, eight progymnasiums, two higher burgher schools, are Catholic; one gymnasium, one progymnasium, one real school of the second order are united, and two progymnasiums, five real and two higher citizen schools whose religious denomination has not yet been determined. In all the institutions there are pupils of various denominations; only the academy for young noblemen at Bedburg, opened in 1842 for the nobility of the Rhine, has preserved throughout its genuine Catholic character. The ecclesiastical inspection for the Catholic schools in the Rhenish provinces consists of the archbishop of Cologne and the bishops of Munster and Treves, and for the Hohenzollern population, the archbishop of Freiburg. The remarkable industrial activity of the people has particularly favored the foundation of real schools and higher burgher schools. The first Rhenish provincial diet made the furtherance of these institutions the object of a special petition, and received from the government a favorable answer; but the petition of the 27th of October, 1856, asking for a wider range in the establishment of real-schools, remained unheeded. The proposed union of the higher burgher schools with classes of the progymnasiums, shows that humane culture stood in great favor.

VIII. Brandenburg.—This province, the central point of the monarchy, consists now of Kurmark, Neumark, and the portions of the Lower Electorate, in the kingdom of Saxony, which were added to these in 1815;

Altmark belongs to the province of Saxony. The University of Frankfurt on the Oder, (1505,) was the beginning of the literary life that was to shed later from this province, light and culture over all parts, and proclaim, especially through its schools, the glory of Prussia to the most distant countries. After the introduction of the Reformation, there were founded, in 1574, under John George, and by the magistrate of Berlin, the gymnasium of the Gray Convent, and in 1807, by Joachim Frederic, a pedagogium at Joachimsthal. The latter, which, after its school-buildings had been destroyed by Cursaxon soldiers, (1636,) was transported to Berlin, is still flourishing, richly endowed, and known under the name of the gymnasium of Joachimsthal. As Berlin is the constant seat of the central administration, all its general school laws and regulations became special ones for the province, which, through the foundation of the Frederic William University of Berlin (1810,) grew ever stronger under the unceasing influence of its life and light. It possesses forty-five higher institutions, all evangelical, of which only four gymnasiums and one real school, the first opened in 1747 by Joh. Jal. Hecker, are under royal patronage. The common councils of the cities, especially of Berlin, have, since they recovered from the heavy war burdens, under which this province suffered particularly, raised considerable means for establishing new schools of all sorts, and the capital shows at this moment a most praiseworthy zeal to set an example to the other towns of the country in the care and attention given to schools.

C. LOCAL ADMINISTRATION.

In the local administration, the institutions of royal foundation are under the immediate patronage of the crown; there is no immediate jurisdiction between them and the school-colleges. In the higher institutions of towns, the magistrate of the place exercises generally the immediate right of patronage. The regulation of the minister Von Schuckmann, July 26, 1811, provided in every city, for all that related to school affairs, one council only under the name of school-deputation, which, according to the size of the place, and the importance of its schools, was to consist of from one to three members of the magistrate, of the city college, and of an equal number of special citizen deputies, to whom, in the larger town, was also adjoined a superintendent. Such schools as were not under the city patronage of the school-deputation, as, for example, the Jewish schools, had to send a representative. As, however, in the course of time a special administration was provided for the higher schools, the former became subordinate to the latter, or existed only, as in the province of Prussia, for the purpose of taking cognition of systems of instruction, or, as in Berlin, of keeping statistical accounts, especially in regard to regular school attendance.

In most cities, the right of patronage is exercised by the magistrate, who in later times has adjoined to himself, as technical colleague, a city school-counselor; in Berlin, two, and in the cities of Stettin, Magdeburg,

Breslau, Danzig, one; the city commissaries are so far concerned in these matters, as they command the city finances, which of course gives them a very considerable influence.

In many cities, as particularly in Westphalia and the province of the Rhine, the administration consists of a special curatorium or school-commission, and in what regards its outside affairs, of attorneys, treasurers and directors. Within the province of the patronage council belongs all that concerns the outward prosperity of the institutions, the regulation of accounts, the preservation and increase of the buildings and utensils, the survey of inventories, and mostly of foundations, grants of benefices, especially to the free-school.

For this purpose it is in constant communication with the leaders of the school, receives from them reports and the respective accounts of all the details of school affairs, and is kept acquainted with the condition of school attendance, systems of instruction and public and final examinations, in which latter the members of the magistracy (*Gymnasiarchen*) or of the curatories are requested to be present. One of the most important duties devolving upon the so long established patronage-right, is the choice of directors and teachers; the welfare of the schools lies then entirely in the hands of the magistracy, and the correct exercise of this duty is more important than all regulations and school-laws, since everything depends on the capability of the teacher. As in later times the city councils were able to command better financial means than the crown, and the city commissaries showed themselves in readiness, by important grants, to further the prosperity of the higher schools, the latter of city patronage, received a powerful push, and begin even to take rank above those of the crown, of more ancient date, and better endowed. The choice of directors since 1810 is subject to royal confirmation, and that of teachers since 1817, to one from the State-council, but these would never be denied, except perhaps in times of political troubles or in cases of formal or moral irregularity. The regulation issued by the cabinet's order of November 10, 1862, in regard to the confirmation of directors and teachers, states that the provincial school-colleges should have to secure the approbation of the Minister of Instruction only for the appointment of higher teachers in gymnasiums, authorized progymnasiums and real-schools, and for the rectors of all institutions recognized in 1859 as higher citizen-schools; the appointment, installation and confirmation of all other teachers in the above named schools was left to the provincial councils. The directors of gymnasiums and real-schools of royal patronage were to be appointed as before by the king, and those of schools of city patronage needed his confirmation. In some schools, the parishes have a share in the patronage, and are represented by their pastors and church-members.

A royal *compatronat* is obtained on the ground of a city institution supported by contributions from the State. This circumstance was determined by a royal cabinet order of June 10, 1817, and is put into effect

in some institutions by royal compatriotat commissaries; but it only relates to outside affairs, and in such a measure only as not to annul or diminish the rights of the patron, thus taking only into consideration cognizance of facts and counter-remarks, whereupon necessarily the school-colleges have the determining voice.

D. MISCELLANEOUS.

A complete school-constitution is as yet wanting in Prussia. Until 1750 the patronages in all school-organizations were but little limited by the regulations of the State-councils. Frederic William I. was the first to lay claim upon the right of the State to issue binding regulations concerning school affairs, and to control the execution of the same in a more extended manner. The General Common Law (*Allgemeine Landrecht*), prepared by orders of Frederic II., and published in 1794, declared the public schools state institutions, and contained among others the following legitimate regulations:—1, All public schools and institutions of learning are under the supervision of the State. 2, To no one shall admission into a public school be refused on account of difference in religion. 3, Children of different persuasion can not be obliged to be present during the hours of religious instruction. 4, Schools and gymnasiums, in which the young are to be prepared for the higher sciences or arts, shall enjoy the rights of corporations. 5, These schools stand under the more immediate direction of the school-councils established by the State. 6, Where the appointment of teachers does not belong to certain persons or corporations, it is made by the State. 7, Without the knowledge and approbation of the councils appointed over the school-affairs of the province, no new teachers can be appointed nor any essential changes be made in the organization of the school-affairs and in the manner of instruction. 8, As inspectors, must be chosen persons of sufficient capacity, of good morals and sound judgment. 9, No native can leave school without a certificate signed by the teachers and school-inspectors. 10, The teachers in gymnasiums and other high-schools are considered as State officers. 11, The manner in which a child is to be educated is to be decided by the father; the latter must see that the child receive the necessary instruction in religion and such branches of education as his circumstances and position in society require. The transactions of the general school-conference (1849,) for the regulation of general forms regarding education, in which were assembled under the minister Von Ladenberg, and at the request of the professors of colleges, various directors and teachers of the gymnasiums and real-schools of Berlin, were published and presented much that was praiseworthy, together with useful hints, but they had no immediate practical result. The report of January 31, 1850, contains the following resolutions:—Art. 14, The Christian religion, in such organizations of the State as are in harmony with its religious practice, shall be made unalterably the basis of the religious liberty granted by Art. 12. Art. 15, The Evangelical or Roman Catholic Church, as well as every other religious community, shall regulate

and administer its own affairs independently, and shall remain in possession of the institutions, foundations and funds set apart for its religious worship, its educational affairs and charitable works. Art. 21, A sufficient number of public schools for the education of the young shall be provided for. Art. 22, To give instruction, or to found and direct institutions of learning, is open to every one, provided he can give to the proper authorities of the State sufficient proofs of good morals, scholarship and technical capacity. Art. 23, All public and private institutions of learning are under the supervision of councils organized by the State. Art. 26, A special law regulates all educational affairs. Art. 112, Until the law provided by Art. 26 takes effect, school and all educational affairs shall be governed by the existing legal regulations.

The execution of Art. 26, has thus far been deferred by the political uncertainties to which, in consequence of its new Constitution, the State has been subject to, and yet a complete instruction law, already prepared under the ministry of Bethmann-Hollweg, had been presented to the consideration of the Chamber of Deputies. A real practical want in school-affairs, or the absolute necessity of that law, had as yet not been sufficiently felt to urge its adoption, although in many respects, especially in the relations between the provincial school-counselors and the directors, more definite regulations had become necessary, especially to prevent that by too great a centralization and bureaucratic interference with the local administration of schools, obstacles might be set to the free and cheerful government of the directors, in the selection of whom such great care is taken.

II. TEACHERS.

The Magdeburg "order of visitation" (1563) required that "the magistrate, with the pastor and superintendent, should appoint the schoolmaster." This collateral right of city patronage has at all times been exercised in Prussia; it was only for the position of director in gymnasiums that the royal approbation was introduced in 1810. The service-instruction for the provincial consistories, Oct. 23, 1817, granted to these councils the right of appointment, advancement or confirmation of teachers in secondary-schools; for the directors and professors, the sanction of the Department had to be obtained. In consequence of the inquests made into the demagogic revolutionary movements of 1819, the filling and confirmations of the above named positions was forthwith transferred to the Department, and the election of directors (1836) became again subject to royal confirmation. The royal regulation of Dec. 9, 1842, determined then that the appointment, advancement and confirmation of teachers for gymnasiums, real-schools and higher burgher schools, be incumbent on the provincial school-board, but subject to the acceptance of the Minister of Public Instruction. The directors were to be elected by the king and respectively confirmed; as a general thing, the minister awaits, in regard to positions of royal patronage, the propositions of the school-collegium. The cabinet order of Nov. 10, 1862, established the following regulation,

at present in force;—"The acceptance of the minister is only to be secured by the provincial school-colleges in cases of superior teachers for gymnasiums, real-schools of the first order, and the authorized progymnasiums, as well as for the rectors of the latter; and, from the royal government, only for the superior teachers and rectors of the real-schools of the second order, and the institutions recognized as higher burgher-schools. In regard to the position of director, it remains the same as prescribed in the royal regulation of Dec. 9, 1842. The installation of the director takes place through a member of the royal supervision-council, and eventually through a royal compatriotial commissary; the city patronage is, on this occasion, represented by deputies."

After the establishment of the literary commission for examination, a great stress was laid, in the appointment of teachers, in addition to their proper qualifications, upon their moral capacity and political integrity. The instruction of May 25, 1824, (by Altenstein,) stated that "in the appointment of teachers the invariable principle should be laid down, that public institutions do not reach their object by the mere literary culture of their pupils, or the prevention of corrupt and injurious sentiments or habits, but that whilst giving all proper attention to scientific culture, it was necessary also to inspire and awaken in the pupils sentiments of affection, fidelity and obedience towards the sovereign and the State, and that, for that reason, the situations of teachers should be particularly given to those that, in this last respect, deserve full confidence." The matter of moral requirements of teachers is still further treated in the circular of Feb. 6, 1847, (Eichhorn,) and in that of Dec. 20, 1848, (Von Ladenberg.) The latter says: "The teacher of a public school must, besides his literary attainments, possess also a moral culture, which may enable him to serve in every circumstance as an example to his pupils. His highest aim should be to remain faithful to his self-chosen vocation, to avoid in his instruction and in his intercourse with his pupils, all that would be calculated in any way to prevent their sound development, all that could not be conceived or properly appreciated by them, or any thing that could exercise a bad influence upon their religious sentiments, of whatever persuasion they might be, or on their ideas of what is noble and good." The circulars of Jan. 23 and June 12, 1851, (Von Raumer,) and of Jan. 2, 1863, required of the school-collegiums, in appointments and advancements, to examine into the private and professional career of the applicants, and to see especially that no blame be attached to their domestic and public life.

Among the formal requirements for an appointment are the release of military service, or the certificate of being acquitted from the same. Dissenters and Jews are excluded from public teacherships.

The regulation of Feb. 6, 1847, lays a special stress upon the election of the directors:—"The importance of the pedagogic power of a man," it says, "shows its full significance when the question comes to intrust the direction of a gymnasium to the right man. The necessary literary

culture in this case is easily found out, but it is much more difficult to obtain the proof that the future director possess not only a just estimate of the relations in life, but be also endowed with the proper sentiments and firmness of character, and such a personal appearance as will inspire respect and confidence, so as to command the general esteem of the corps of teachers, and by this and a consistent and steady government, may be enabled to train the young in all the sentiments of religion, in love of country, and a conscientious fidelity under all circumstances in life."

The formally-appointed teachers, immediately after receiving their appointment, take the oath; to those of institutions of royal patronage, it is administered by the Director, to those of city patronage, by the magistrate. The oath-formula of Feb. 12, 1850, was: "I —— swear, by the almighty and all-knowing God, that, having been appointed to —— by his royal majesty of Prussia, my most gracious sovereign, I, his subject, will in all things be faithful and obedient, and fulfill the duties of my office according to my conscience, and the best of my knowledge, as well as carefully observe the Constitution. So help me God." Every one is free to add to this oath any confirmatory formula which his religious sentiments may dictate. The technical and provisionally-accepted teachers are pledged by shaking of hands. The time of service, in regard to pension, dates generally from the day of taking the oath.

When the designation for a certain directorship has taken place, the *Colloquium pro rectorata* is held before the regular commission for examination, to inquire into the qualifications of the person designated, and see whether the candidate possess the degree of philosophical, pedagogic and literary culture necessary for the judicious supervision and direction of the whole establishment of a higher institution. The directors of the royal gymnasiums and real-schools are salaried by the king, those of city patronage receive in addition to their regular salary a gratification, through the Minister of Public Instruction. The appointment document reads as follows:—"We, ——, by God's grace, king of Prussia, declare and announce hereby, that we have been pleased to appoint——as director ——. This appointment is made in the confidence that he will remain invariably true to ourselves and our royal house, and will discharge the duties of the office intrusted to him in all its details, with zeal and regularity; the same will thereby enjoy all the rights connected with his present situation, as well as our highest protection." The appointing documents for institutions which do not come under royal patronage, contain in some parts of the country statements of a more special and detailed character concerning the duties and rights of the office; as, for example, in Königsberg (Prussia,) that the director can not engage in giving private lessons; at Stolpe, in Pomerania, that the director should make it the object of his usefulness to see to the Christian education and instruction of the pupils intrusted to him, basing the same upon the Word of God, such as it is defined in the Lutheran Catechism; at Nordhausen, that the director should give particular attention to the religious

education of the young, and see that the Word of God as contained in the Scriptures and repeated in the catechisms of the Evangelical Church, be duly presented to them. The obligatory duties and rights of the directors are contained in the documents of 1823 to 1856, given to the single provinces under the name of twelve *service instructions*, the purport of which agrees in general with all the rest. Since these instructions give the best representation of the importance which the State council attached to all educational affairs and their respective departments, the chief points of the general instructions concerning the object and import of the office and official position of the directors, will be here indicated, such as they are contained in the Pomeranian Instruction of May 1, 1820.

§ 2. "In order that the director or rector may enjoy free action in the discharge of his duties, and that the necessary unity may be obtained in his administration and supervision, it is declared that the whole school, with its several classes, its respective officers and pupils, come under his immediate authority." To that effect "he shall (a) enjoy in all his public relations as president and representative of a higher institution, all the respect and proper distinction which is due to the position. He is the mediator between the school and the parents and councils, and reports and directs all the transactions of the institution. Upon him devolves the responsibility to watch the spirit and tendency of the institution, and the obligation to give at all times full information of its condition, on all general and particular points." (b) "His relation towards the faculty is that of a superior and of a co-laborer in a common work." "He has to indicate to every teacher the sphere of his activity according to the general plan, and to observe his professional and moral life." "No teachers are allowed to refuse accepting or fulfilling any official duties he may see fit to lay upon them; yet, should they be overburdened, they can refer the case to the provincial school-collegium." "In the meetings of the board of teachers, which the director can call together as he thinks proper, the transactions are conducted by him, as president, and in cases of disagreement, his vote decides the majority. If from a certain decision the director should have cause to fear the institution would suffer, he must refer the case to the council; according to the Brandenburgian Instruction, his opinion still decides the case; the question at issue and the causes of disagreement being stated in his report." (c.) "All pupils are subject to his supervision and discipline. To him are referred all cases provided for by the school laws, or whenever just objections are made against the course pursued by a teacher." "The lower officers and servants of the institution are under his special supervision and control." (d.) "He has the direction of all classes, and departments connected with the establishment."

§ 5. "The director shall, as often as the opportunity presents itself, confer with the parents or guardians about the progress of the pupils, to which the regular reports will give sufficient occasion. In regard to any

serious misdemeanor on the part of the pupils, he must inform those in charge of them."

§ 7. "He is bound on his own accord to acquaint the royal school-council of all that concerns the internal and outward condition of the school, and in all important circumstances, whether relating to the duties or rights of the faculty, to the order of instruction or discipline, or to any particular branch of the institution, he must consult the same."

The following is contained in the Brandenburgian Instruction:—

§ 9. "In the selection of regular class-professors, the director must exercise all possible care and judgment. According to the cabinet order of Oct. 24, 1837, the class-professors are designated by the school-collegiums, which regulation however rests practically upon their approbation of any candidate proposed by the director."

§ 10. "The censorship meetings must be held by the directors three or four times a year, at a fixed period and with due solemnity, and in the presence of all the professors of the institution."

§ 14. "In regard to the plan of instruction, it belongs still to the province of the director to design the plan of lessons for the scholastic year, and to assure himself regarding the carrying out of the same throughout all the classes, and to arrange the public and private examinations."

§ 15. "In the drawing up of the plan of instruction, the opinion of the several professors shall be taken into consideration, and their wishes, if reasonable, be duly regarded. If any one teacher has too great an amount of written exercises to correct in his department, this labor must be equalized in another direction by less laborious lessons. The plan of lessons must be laid before the provincial school-collegium in the first days of March and September, and no teacher is allowed to depart from it of his own accord or to introduce any other text-book than the one already adopted."

§ 16. "The director is bound to visit frequently the several classes of the institution in order to convince himself that the order of instruction is carried out, as well as to inspect the disciplinary condition of the same. It is also important that during the course he examine in turn the compositions of the pupils in their various classes."

§ 17. "Every transference of pupils from a lower to a higher class has to be preceded by an examination; the director himself decides upon his own responsibility, whether a scholar is ready to be transferred or not."

§ 18. "In regard to the public examinations, the director must see that in a certain space of years the teachers and classes take their turn." (The latter however is never practically carried out.)

§ 23. The director must so inquire into the morals, industry and progress of each pupil, as to be able at all times to give their parents and guardians due information of the same; he must also in the conferences of the meetings of the board of teachers, be so informed of every thing pertaining to the institution, as to give his advice and decide any case relating to school instruction and discipline. In the distribution of pre-

miums, he selects, together with the teachers, the most deserving from among the scholars, and decides all differences of opinion on that occasion."

§ 24. "The director has in general the introduction into office of any newly appointed teacher, and makes the announcement of the departure or death of any of the professors; if acquainted with a suitable person to succeed to the vacant position, he must call the attention of the patron to the same." (Practically the patron accedes always to the director's proposition.)

§ 27. "When temporary substitutes are needed, the director appoints from the other members of the board of teachers, and only in extraordinary cases, consolidates classes. Where a department needs a substitute for any length of time, an assistant teacher must be engaged."

In regard to rank, the directors, or as in some of the older gymnasiums they are still called, rectors of the gymnasiums or the real-schools of the first order, stand equal to the regular professors of universities, to the counselors of government and of courts of appeal; they belong officially to the fourth class in rank. Socially their position is much respected; those of age, part of whom have been the teachers of the highest officers of State, from the high consideration given in Prussia to school education, and by their former pupils generally, are treated with great esteem and filial regard.

The official labor of the director is to be mainly educational. It therefore requires his presence in school from the commencement of the first lesson in the morning to the close of the last in the afternoon. During the whole time of school he must employ himself with the teachers and scholars only; all his studies and official correspondence must be done outside of this time; it would be necessary that for this reason, the latter should be simplified as much as possible. However the speciality and exactness of Prussian administration overburdens in this particular beyond power the office of directors, particularly in the more frequented institutions of large cities. Correspondence to be held with local and provincial officers, periodical reports, tabulary reviews, statistical information, to which frequently is added the administration of educational funds, take up so much of their time out of school hours, that the most talented can not have the desired leisure for necessary progress in science. Beyond formularies and reports, more or less increased according to the option of the heads of the departments, in place of the yearly report of administration, into which the director received what appeared most noteworthy, and in which he was often required to explain a detailed subject more particularly, a triennial report has been substituted since 1859, in which, according to the Act of Aug. 6, 1863, besides the most detailed statistical information on the board of teachers, discipline, methods and means of instruction, many other things are required to be enlarged on.

In some of the provinces, general conferences take place of the directors of gymnasiums and real-schools of the first order, presided over by a

counselor of Instruction of the province. The first of these was in Westphalia in 1823; repeated at first every year, then every three years; the last, in 1863, was the fifteenth. In Pomerania, in 1861 and 1864, two such conferences met; in Prussia (province,) in 1831 a trial was made, and renewed with increasing success in 1835, 1841 and 1865. The several directors propose subjects for deliberation, from which the provincial school-board selects those for discussion, and appoints a disputant for each side. In this manner many didactic and pedagogic subjects have been thoroughly discussed, and by publishing the deliberations, the results of these conferences have become common property.

B. Class-professors and other teachers.—In order to effect greater uniformity in instruction, and to increase the moral influence of the older and more gifted teachers, who, by the kind and number of lessons they give in their respective classes, exercise much more influence on the young, class-professors were introduced in 1820, at the same time with the class system. The instruction by the royal consistory of the province of Brandenburg, Aug. 10th, 1820, contains the following principal regulations: “2, They superintend the scholars assigned to them and keep complete lists of their personal conduct. 3, The class-professor has to consider himself as requested by the parents or relatives of the scholar, to look after the general welfare of the young man in school. 4, He should never accept complaints about other teachers. 5, He should advise his new scholars in the purchase of the necessary books of instruction, and see that they prepare the requisite number of copy-books for writing and drawing, as well as blank-books for other lessons. 6, He should require that all copy-books be laid before him at least once a month, that he may also judge whether the student is not overloaded by the competition of too many tasks from different lessons given at one time. 7, He should privately take friendly advice with his colleagues as to the industry of his scholars, and heed their suggestions. 8, The same with regard to moral conduct. Here he should show himself a fatherly friend, but like a sensible parent not interfere with the disciplinary measures of another teacher. 9, He will be able better to effect all this by placing himself in accord with the parents or relatives of the scholar. 10, It is particularly expected from their devotion to the good cause, that from time to time they will visit at their residences those scholars whose parents do not reside in the place. 13, It is left for each director to add other regulations if circumstances demand.”

The circular of the royal consistorium at Cologne of the 26th of February, 1824, has appended a few other regulations, of which the principal are: “11, Where monthly compositions have been introduced, the class-professor, from the lists submitted to him by the other teachers, shall prepare the principal class-report, and present the same, with the exercises, to the director. 13, It is specially recommended that he supervise the religious conduct and church-attendance of his pupils. 15, Where a disciplinary punishment is decreed either by a teacher who does not

instruct in the class, or by one of the class-teachers, which affects the whole or a greater part of the class, the matter should be laid before the class professor, who decides as far as the order of discipline gives him power, or refers it to the director.

The great influence of class-professorships has been amply verified since their introduction; the order of the cabinet for reorganization, of Oct. 24th, 1837, ascribes the success of all arrangements to this: "The more and the longer we succeed in finding for the difficult but influential position of class-profs, capable teachers, of a general scientific education, of true love and devotion for their profession, and of mature experience, who thoroughly have penetrated and mastered the subjects confided to them, and who understand how to select, with a clear and quick discernment, from their connection with other objects of study and with the general plan of instruction of a gymnasium in all branches, the means best adapted to the general development and efficient education of their pupils; who know how to distinguish between essentials and non-essentials, and who, finally, by the purity and dignity of their character, and their gentle yet decided deportment, are able to awaken in the classes confided to their care and training a lasting impression of the moral power which rules the destiny of man."

It was also in accordance with this ideal conception, that the instruction in religion of his class should, as much as possible, be confided to the class-professor.

The teachers of gymnasiums had, and in part still have, after the old custom, the titles of prorector, corrector, subrector, subcorrector, baccalaureus, collaborator, cooperator collega, and in the inferior positions in many places, that of cantor and auditor, and in the ministerial order of March 17, 1840, the preservation of these titles for the three highest teachers was recommended. The title of *Oberlehrer* (higher or superior teacher,) after the introduction of the "order of examination of 1812," was usually adopted by all teachers who from their examination had obtained the qualification for the higher classes, but officially it was ascribed to those only who obtained it by express decree. The circular of Oct. 24th, 1837, published the resolution to ascribe the title of "*Oberlehrer*" as an encouragement to class-profs exclusively, and to revoke the existing distinction between "superior" and "inferior" teacher, in order to oppose the erroneous conception that the ability to instruct in the upper classes in itself bestows a higher dignity. By the decree of March 27th, 1845, a proportionate number of positions for "*Oberlehrer*" was established for each school, to which such teachers only should be appointed who by an *examen pro fæc docendi* had proven their ability for instruction in the two higher classes. This decree, at first, could not be strictly carried out without severity against existing older teachers, well tried in practice; but by another circular, of Jan. 2d, 1863, it has been again established that for the vacant positions of "*Oberlehrer*" only such teachers should be proposed as have acquired the qualification to

give instructions in one of the main studies in the first class. Teachers who from their general mental capacity are fit for instructing in the upper classes, (but do not yet possess the formal qualification,) are urged to submit in time to a special examination. For the award of the title of "*Oberlehrer*" as a personal distinction, such teachers only shall be proposed, who by long management as class-professors have proved themselves able teachers and eminent instructors, and who have acquired considerable merit in matters of education. All other teachers are to be named "ordinary teachers."

A general instruction for the office of teachers does not exist.

The title of "professor" was formerly bestowed by the king; by cabinet order of Dec. 23d, 1842, the power to grant it was given to the Department of Instruction. It is to remain, however, a distinction rarely granted to those who possess the qualification for one of the main branches in a first class, and have not only proved themselves excellent teachers, but have made themselves favorably known in a scientific aspect. At some gymnasiums the title of professor is connected with a certain number of teacherships. According to rank, the professors of gymnasiums and of real-schools belong to the fifth class, equally with the extraordinary professors at universities. Sometimes the title of professor is bestowed on teachers of drawing and singing, when they have distinguished themselves by works of art.

To the desire to introduce an order of rank for the other teachers of higher schools, secretary Eichhorn (order of Nov. 7, 1846,) replied by declaring that it appears proper to withhold similar distinctions from the profession of teachers, and to allow the weight of scientific education and the labor towards the development of mental powers in youth, in connection with the personality of each one, alone to decide the dignity of the position. Herein lies the correct appreciation of the position of teachers in Prussia, that each one of them knows how to assume that honorable standing in society which is due him, according to his knowledge and personal dignity, in which he is willingly supported by the gratitude of a public greatly interested in the education of their children.

The number of hours of instruction is fixed for each teacher during the vacations; generally the director gives from twelve to sixteen, an *Oberlehrer* from twenty to twenty-two, an ordinary teacher twenty-two to twenty-four lessons; at the schools of the city of Berlin each teacher gives twenty lessons per week. If primary teachers instruct at higher schools, twenty-six to twenty-eight hours are permitted. The highest of these numbers shall be required of a teacher only, when the class is not largely frequented and no corrections of written lessons are connected with it.

Every teacher is obliged, without remuneration, to teach additional hours during a vacancy, except when the position is not again filled for a long time. He can not accept any other office to which pay is attached, nor an office in the civil administration of the city, without the consent

of the Department of Instruction. Teachers of the institutions under the patronage of the city can not be elected aldermen; they are required to accept a guardianship only of children of relatives or fellow teachers, and to this a consent is necessary. Before concluding marriage, they have to petition the governors of the respective province for his consent, and oblige themselves to contribute to the general fund for the support of widows. There is no limit prescribed to their giving private lessons; but the establishment of private institutions requires the consent of the local officers and of the Department.

The secret lists of conduct, which had been introduced early after the reorganization of the State, to be made out annually by the directors according to prescribed schedule, and returned by them to the provincial school department, and by the latter, after having been perfected, to the Department of Instruction, have been abolished by decree of July 31, 1848. These lists contained four divisions to mark personalities and official employment; three divisions to mark official conduct, moral behavior and private studies of the teachers. They have been undeservedly decried; for they gave to the director much more opportunity to recommend in an official way teachers of merit to the Department for distinction, than to take away from their merits. Since then a periodical report of administration gives the directors occasion to express their opinion on the qualification of a teacher; if it contains a censure, they have to apprise the teacher of it, and afford him an opportunity for justification. The royal decree of July 11, 1849, with regard to misdemeanors in office by officers other than judicial, was also applied to public teachers. Minister Von Ladenberg declared in a circular dated July 26th, 1849: "The productive working of the office of a teacher, rests essentially upon the whole spiritual and moral bearing of the individual and upon the respect it inspires in his scholars, as well as in their parents and guardians. The more important the educating element appears in the character of youth, the more the superintending authority should look upon this circumstance, and should not hesitate to consider, if needs there be, conduct outside of the school a misdemeanor in office." However, this decree made it a duty to protect a teacher against unjust and inimical accusations, as well as to give due consideration to the just complaints of those who confide to the teacher their holiest goods, the spiritual and moral welfare of their children. The code of discipline for all officers of the government, of July 21st, 1852, is considered to apply equally to all public teachers.

Leave of absence for a journey during the course of instruction can be granted by the directors for one week; the school department of the province can extend it to four weeks for a journey into foreign countries, and to six weeks within the State; the Ober president can grant six weeks' leave out of the State, and eight weeks within its boundaries; for any longer period the consent of the Minister of Instruction or of the king is required. During a leave of absence beyond four weeks, accord-

ing to order dated March 28th, 1808, officers shall draw only half salary, which however is but seldom practiced. In accordance with the cabinet order of June 15th, 1868, during a leave of absence, salary is paid in full for the first six weeks; half pay for four and a half months' longer, and no salary afterwards. In case of sickness no deduction is made. During a journey for purposes of science, the expenses for a deputy are deducted.

The same authority which commissions for a position is to receive also application for discharge, which shall only be refused when the general interests would suffer by acceptance. The teacher is not allowed to leave his post until arrangements have been made for a successor or for temporary occupation. The regular period for giving notice of discontinuance in office is generally six months, and to begin April 1st, or October 1st.

The salary of teachers, at the beginning of this century, was everywhere mostly very small and very rarely fixed in amount. The greater part of the receipts was derived from various fees and perquisites, some of them even degrading, of which the history of some schools furnishes ample evidence. Only since the reorganization of the State the government has continually labored to procure a fixed living salary for teachers, and particularly to abolish their dependence on the fees paid for instruction. For if by these a just equalization between labor and wages was effected, they very readily led to overcrowding of classes and other inconveniences, from which a school should be kept free. Pro-temporary officials receive a remuneration which can only exceptionally amount to the regular salary. The principal and most important emolument, a free residence, has been retained whenever it is derived from donative funds or local appropriations. As a matter of course the director has a suitable dwelling in the institution, and where this is not the case, it is looked upon as an evil which should be remedied as soon as possible.

During a mobilization of the army, for those who are called into active service and who have their household with wife and child, a decrease in salary takes place, from the beginning of the month in which they are obliged to leave their homes, but only so far as their salary and military pay together passes beyond the amount of 800 *th.* per year. Salaries are paid every quarter of a year in advance; for accidental duties at the institution, remuneration is generally granted. During a journey in the interest of the service, and when a removal to another position takes place, mileage is paid proportionate to the office. Teachers who, without fault of theirs, find themselves in reduced circumstances, may have extraordinary assistance from the funds of the State, if their yearly income is not above 1000 *th.*, (thaler, 72 cents.)

The janitors of the school, who in accordance with a resolution of the Department of Oct. 12th, 1897, shall be selected from the military invalids entitled to maintenance in civil life, receive above their salary a dwelling-place in the institution, and materials for fuel and light. The collections taken up formerly among the students as a Christmas present, have been discontinued, and they receive instead a remuneration from the funds of the school.

The granting of pensions, up to the third decade of this century, was an act of royal favor; communities and corporations also exercised such acts of grace towards teachers no longer capable for duty, and often to a considerable amount. A law for the pensioning of teachers, after much deliberation and conferring with the provincial authorities, was enacted, May 28th, 1846, and received the royal approbation. According to it all teachers and officers of superior schools become entitled to a pension during life, if after a certain period in service they become incapable for duty not by their own fault, and if they were duly commissioned. If at an advanced age they are not absolutely incapable for duty, but unable to satisfy the requirements of their office, they are obliged, if the Department thinks proper, to pay an assistant appointed to aid them; however, there must be left for them a salary at least equal to the pension. The amount of pension is fixed by a scale; after fifteen years of service, four-sixteenths, after fifty years, twelve-sixteenths of their salary. The time of service is computed from the date of their taking the oath of office, and if they did not take such, from the day of their first entry into service. The trial year is not included, but the time passed in active military service is, and time of service before the enemy counts double. The fund for pensions is derived from yearly contributions of the salary, as introduced since January 1st, 1847; to the amount of one per cent. of 400 *th.*; one and one-fourth per cent. of 1000 *th.*; two per cent. of 2000 *th.*, and three per cent. of 3000 *th.*; moreover, one-twelfth of the whole salary must be paid in one installment.

The families of teachers who die in office, receive at the end of the month in which the death occurred, one quarter's salary; those of pensioned teachers that of one month. Every teacher commissioned for one of the higher schools is entitled and required to enter the "Institute for the support of widows," at Berlin, unless his age is too far advanced or ill health oppose his becoming a member. The amount insured must be at least one-fifth of the salary, and is not allowed to be above 500 *th.* In extraordinary cases, voluntary pensions are given to widows, generally only from 50 to 100 *th.*, and means for education in schools are granted for orphaned boys to their seventeenth year, and for girls to their fifteenth year, in monthly rates from one-half to two thalers. Many of these institutes possess considerable donations for widows and orphans.

III. REGULATIONS OF EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS.

The "Magdeburg Order of Visitation," (1568,) required the magistrate, with the consent of the resident pastor and superintendent, to appoint the public school-teacher. More minute regulations on an "examination" of teachers at the Latin and German schools were contained in the royal order of Sept. 30th, 1718, according to which they should be examined by the consistory or the general superintendent before being commissioned, and to those who gave satisfaction a testimonial should be given, and no one could be commissioned without it. Repeated instructions of 1750 and 1764 declared that no teacher should be engaged or promoted

without the approbation of the superior consistory, and the instruction for the superior school-collegium of Feb. 22d, 1787, ordered that a teacher should be appointed only on the ground of a testimonial from this authority. The candidate proposed for a vacant teachership was presented to the consistory or school-collegium of the province, which referred him to one of their members, generally to an experienced teacher. In this much depended on the character and learning of the latter, and these examinations lacked uniformity. Gedike, who, as a member of the superior school-collegium, was often charged with like examinations, gives a detailed sketch thereof in the programme of the gymnasiums of Frederickswerder of 1789 (collected writings on schools, II. pp. 90.) By the patrons of city schools, as long as teachers were mostly theologians, the evidence of their education for the ministerial office was generally deemed sufficient; likewise the recommendation of a distinguished scholar, or trial lessons, or the degree of Bachelor or Master of Arts given by a university, or the testimonials of their attendance at seminaries for theology, philology or pedagogy. But this custom proved more and more insufficient for the higher schools, since newly revived humanitarianism penetrated more deeply into them, and they no longer selected their teachers from among the candidates of theology, but from candidates who had been specially trained for higher teachership and proved more suitable. Thus, when the centralizing organization of the State extended also to the field of education, an examination of candidates for higher teachership, legal throughout the State, was ordered by the edict of July 12th, 1810, which at first was made by deputations of the Department of Public Instruction, and latterly by a special commission of examinations.

The regulations for examination had been drawn up by W. von Humboldt, Schleiermacher and Süvern. Of the motives, Humboldt had stated that such examinations are the only barrier that could be opposed to the abuse of the rights of patronage. It would honor the profession of teachers in the State, if every one who enters it had first to give evidence of his qualification. Fr. A. Wolf also declared himself in favor of not admitting any to teach at the secondary schools, though they had graduated at universities, unless they had been examined and authorized by the commission of examinations. The examination should consist in written theses, oral questioning and trial lessons. The commission could dispense with one of these. Those who, after presenting a dissertation in Latin and passing the regular oral examination at one of the faculties for philosophy of one of the State universities, had obtained the degree of Master of Arts, were not subject to further examination, only to a trial lesson. With members of seminaries for classic schools, the examination taken at their entrance by the director of the same, was sufficient. Distinguished foreigners called to professorships by the Prussian Department of Instruction were not subjected to any examination. The certificate given pointed out distinctly in what branches the candidate was well posted or weak; what proportion his skill in teaching held

to his knowledge, and the degree of his general qualification was indicated in the authority to teach in secondary-schools. The examination was called "*examen pro facultate docendi*." Those proposed for a permanent professorship, had to pass an *examen pro loco*, in which regard should be had only to the necessary knowledge and skill for the particular position. To dispense from examinations was the privilege of the Department for Public Instruction. These regulations took effect, Jan. 1st, 1813. The requirements made of candidates at first were trifling, and the taking effect of the regulations fell in a time when Mars was worshiped more than Minerva; but when, after 1815, studies could again be pursued undisturbedly, a continually increasing zea for the study of philology and philosophy manifested itself, and gradually a class of teachers, scientifically educated, formed itself, the like of which could not be found easily at any other time, and towards which chief counselor Johannes Schulze largely contributed by encouraging learned publications and attaching promotion to the same; particularly in the selection of directors great weight was given to successful labor as an author. A regulation of the department of Aug. 21, 1824, called to the attention of the consistories the one-sidedness of philologic preparation, and demanded that examinations should be extended principally on logic and metaphysics, psychology and history of philosophy, history and theology; but that very one-sidedness had trained the best powers of teaching, and if the examination in philosophy had remained in the background, there was among the students of that time such great zeal for education in philosophy, that without special requirements at the examination, all studies were enlivened thereby, even in a more extensive and more liberal manner than is possible by the anxiety to pass an examination. The afore-mentioned circular, in calling upon the commission for examination, to pay strict regard to "thoroughness and quality of philosophy and the study thereof, to the end that the shallow and superficial philosophisms which in modern times compose wholly the science of philosophy, may give way to fundamental studies, and that philosophy may obtain again her honorable and useful position among the sciences, and that academic youth, instead of being bewildered and darkened by after-philosophy, may be conducted by thorough instruction in a genuine philosophical spirit, to a clear, correct and complete application of the powers of the mind," was particularly meant for the study of the philosophy of Hegel, and the early appointment of Hegel into the commission for examination coincided with it. The objections raised, by the commission of Berlin only, against the practicability of the order of the department in reference to philosophy, were replied to on Aug. 18th, 1865, that "the different branches of philosophy in which examination should be had, give to the examining person forthwith a distinct and concrete subject, by which to discover whether the candidate has mentally appropriated what he heard in the lectures on philosophy at the university." The observation of the commission, that no law did exist, and could not very well exist,

according to which one system of philosophy only should be studied by the young at the academy, was refused as trivial and not called for by the circular of the department.

The circular of Aug. 21st, 1824, directed further that each candidate for teachership, who had been examined, should pass another trial before a member of the consistory, in regard to his knowledge in theology. Of those who did not want to be qualified for instructing religion, they should particularly inquire whether they possess the knowledge of the Christian doctrines of faith and morality requisite for teachers at a gymnasium, while of those intending to become qualified for teaching religion, they should require sufficient knowledge in the exegesis of the Old and New Testaments, and in church history. In proposing for the office of professor or director, those who had a thorough education in theology should be principally favored.

In a corresponding manner it was ordered, under date of Sept. 2, 1826, that a Catholic clergyman, well schooled and of distinguished reputation, should be invited, with the approbation of the archiepiscopal see of Cologne, to examine Catholic candidates for teachership in their knowledge of religion, and to do this if possible at the place where the commission of education held their session.

Candidates for teachership, who desired to be engaged at the higher burgher schools only, should be admitted to the examination *pro facultate docendi*, though they had not passed the *triumnum academicum*, or not frequented a university at all. But with regard to regular teachers of science at the higher burgher-schools, or schools of commerce, and technical or real-schools in larger cities, in which an education was obtained for the higher mechanics or for the commercial profession, principally in mathematics, the natural sciences, history and geography, German literature, technology and modern languages, it was ordained by instruction of March 29th, 1827, that their commission should depend on a previous well-passed examination in these branches.

The requirements for teachers of higher schools, changed and enlarged in the course of time, made necessary the preparation of new rules for examination, which are still extant, and which were composed by Joh. Schulze on the basis of opinions presented by the different commissions for examination. In these are distinguished the examination: 1, *pro facultate docendi*; 2, *pro loco*; 3, *pro ascensione*; 4, the *colloquium pro rectorata*. Subjects in examination are: 1, the German, Latin, Greek, French, and Hebrew languages; 2, mathematics, natural philosophy, history and geography, philosophy and pedagogy, theology. However, it should not be forbidden to any candidate to be examined in other languages and sciences, to which he had devoted himself, and which stood in connection with objects of instruction at secondary-schools. A main condition for admission was the complete academic triennium, and in 1841 a rule was added, that every one who desired to enter the service of the Prussian government must have studied at a Prussian university.

during three semesters. Foreigners, in order to be admitted to the examinations, are required to present a special permit from the Department of Education; but from this, candidates from the Grand Duchy of Saxe-Coburg are excepted since 1864.

According as the "*curriculum vita*" delivered by the candidate is found to be more or less favorable, two or three subjects for a treatise in writing are given him, with directions to finish the same after a certain fixed time (usually six months,) and to report the sources from which information was drawn for the composition. As a rule, one of these compositions must be in the Latin language; to candidates who intend to devote themselves exclusively to teaching mathematics and natural science at one of the higher burgher or real-schools, it is permitted to use the French language in place of the Latin. By circular of May 19, 1833, it was also permitted to give to candidates upon their application, lessons more difficult or more easy than were first required in the examination. Exempt from compositions in writing should be: (1,) doctors and masters of philosophy promoted at one of the inland universities, after a public defense in Latin of their *inaugural dissertation*, published in printed form; (2,) candidates of theology, who can produce a certificate from the theological commission of examination of having favorably passed the first *examen* for theologians. From the oral examination, doctors of philosophy were not exempt; on the contrary they had to be examined in all the principal branches of instruction, and particularly in those which are not included in the examination for doctor of philosophy.

According to the value of the written compositions, the subject for a trial-lesson, and the class in which it is to take place, are selected, and "the director and those members of the commission to whom the branches selected principally belong, are required to be present." In practice, however, it has been found that the director can not assist at all times, and consequently he is not always present.

By the oral examination is to be ascertained what knowledge the candidate possesses in philology, mathematics, history, natural sciences, theology and philosophy, and if sufficient for the purposes of teaching at secondary-schools; and he shall be examined so far in them as is necessary to judge correctly the extent of his knowledge. That part of the examination which refers to ancient (classical) philology, must be made in Latin. If the trial-lesson and oral examination should give a result different from that which the written compositions gave a right to expect, the candidate may be required to prepare another, under special surveillance and without any means of assistance. More than three candidates shall not be examined at the same time, and then only such as desire to become qualified for the same grade of schools. "The importance of the examination makes necessary the permanent presence of the director of the commission, and another member beside the one who examines the candidate."

In giving the "*facultas docendi*," three degrees are distinguished:

(1.) the unconditional, when the candidate, besides a sufficient, even if not perfectly developed capacity for teaching, is so far master of the subjects as to be able, after due preparation, to teach, (a) Latin and Greek and the German language, (b) mathematics and natural sciences, (c) history and geography, or (d) as according to later instructions of the Department, theology, and the Hebrew language, in one of the upper classes of a gymnasium successfully, and is so far acquainted with all other subjects as to be able to appreciate their relative importance to other branches of instruction and to influence beneficially the total education of the students." In a declaration of Aug. 9th, 1831, the Department pointed out "that the purpose of this regulation was to prevent for the future the total ignorance of candidates for teachership in any of the three essential branches of instruction in secondary-schools, as had hitherto not seldom been shown." Since the issue of the regulations of 1834 for the maturity examination* in leaving the gymnasium, such total ignorance is prevented, and the general examination of candidates appears no more necessary; however, the fear of it often divides the powers of students, who rather strive after the eminent in one branch, which is the more important, than after an *aqualis mediocritas*.

As qualification for instructing philology in the two upper classes, besides a perfect knowledge of Greek and Latin grammar, an extensive study of the classics of these two languages, in particular of those usually read in upper classes, and a familiarity with the actual value of philology and the most important means for its study, as well as correctness and fluency in lecturing Latin, are required. In the branches of philosophy a complete knowledge of details and minute penetration can not be expected; yet the examination must lead to the conviction that the candidate has studied these sciences.

The examination in German extends to grammar, the peculiar character and laws of the language, the historic development of the same, and the history of its literature. "Those who do not possess knowledge of the German language and literature, and general scientific knowledge enough to teach the German successfully in each class, even in the highest, can not receive the "unconditional *facultas docendi* for philology." The Department declared in rescript of Nov. 12th, 1831, that those who contended for that degree should combine the knowledge of antiquity with the study of the history of modern science.

In history and geography, beside a general knowledge thereof, the "study of the principal authors for any period of ancient, middle or modern history" was required. Moreover the candidate should "possess enough of philology, not only to make use of the Greek and Roman classics for his lectures, but also by the latter to contribute to the interpretation of the former; and he should have that command of expression in Latin, that he can deliver his lectures on ancient history in that lang-

* *Note.*—The final examination on leaving the gymnasium, which, if successfully passed, declares the student matured for the university, and entitles him to admittance.

usage." Qualification as teacher for the upper classes of real-schools may be obtained without a knowledge of the ancient languages, according to the order of April 6th, 1859. The ability of teachers and examiners to deliver a well connected lecture on history in Latin now disappearing almost altogether, this requirement has been overlooked at examinations. Also, geography is treated on generally by questions connected with the examination in history, so that an actual *facultas docendi* in this branch can rarely be said to have been established.

In mathematics, the candidate must prove that he has penetrated the higher parts of geometry, spherical analysis and higher mathematics, so far as to be able to make successful applications of these to astronomy and natural philosophy. A special decree of December 14, 1839, ordains that beside a general review of this science and its application to everyday phenomena, a more comprehensive and thorough knowledge of all its parts, including modern discoveries and late publications, as well as of the more important problems of chemistry and the ability to explain suitable problems in a mathematical way, should be required. This order also fitly demands, "that in order not to limit the thorough study of mathematics and the natural sciences by too great requirements, the conditional *facultas docendi* shall be given to candidates who can teach mathematics and the mathematical parts of natural philosophy in all classes, and to those who can instruct in the natural sciences in all classes, and mathematics in the lower and middle classes only.

In philosophy and pedagogy, beside an exact knowledge of these sciences and a critical appreciation of the different systems of instruction and education, it should be required that the candidates are able to explain, in a scientific manner, the principles of logic, metaphysics and psychology; and with a general knowledge of the history of philosophy and of its different systems according to their characteristic peculiarities, they should combine a familiar knowledge of the changes philosophy has experienced by Kant, and since his time.

2. The *conditional facultas docendi* can be obtained by (a) those who, though they have sufficient knowledge to teach in the two upper classes, yet in one or more branches do not satisfy the requirements which must be exacted of every teacher, obtain this degree under the condition that they supply those deficiencies, and they should not be admitted to the examination *pro loco* until there is reason to expect that their studies in the deficient branches have been perfected; (b) those who, in one or more of the chief subjects of instruction, possess only the knowledge required for middle or lower classes.

The second degree of teachership obtained great latitude by those regulations, and embraced candidates of the greatest learning and the most able capacities, as must frequently be found in limiting examination to certain branches of science, as well as those of great mediocrity who had not passed far beyond the maturity-examination. For this reason the instructions of Aug. 9th, 1831, made a discrimination between can-

dicates who had been examined for teaching in the upper classes, and such as had been qualified for the lower classes only. To the first ones the regulations on examination *pro loco* are applied, but they are not to pass a second examination *pro facultate docendi*, since the trial-year will give the authorities ample opportunity to convince themselves how far the candidate has endeavored to supply the deficiencies appearing at the examination.* Even after the trial-year, the authorities, by bestowing the necessary attention on the candidates in their district, could not fail of opportunities to obtain all information on that point. These instructions proved important and wholesome by freeing the most capable candidates from the obligation of a second examination in such branches of knowledge, the study of which could be superficial with them only, while it would draw them away from their proper field of excellence. The school-collegiums, it is true, had a task they could only perform to some extent through the organ of the respective directors, as under the office-like way of conducting the business of the collegium, there rarely was left time and opportunity for any of the members to make personal observations. The experience of the next years following the issue of these regulations showed in many cases unsatisfactory results of the examinations and many deficiencies, which partly had their cause in the regulations themselves, partly in their application by the examiners, in particular by some professors of universities, who made too high requirements on the younger teachers of gymnasiums, and partly, too, in the spirit of the times, which was more bent on realities and unfavorable to the study of philology. In the circular of Feb. 8d, 1838, to the Royal Commission for Examinations, the "superficial mediocrity which satisfies so many candidates for higher teachership in their vocation," has been opposed by increased demands, principally by allowing the qualification for *conditional facultas docendi* only to the candidates heretofore described under (a); but it was left to the discretion of the commission for examination to bestow the "*conditional facultas docendi* on such candidates who in one or more of the principal branches of instruction possess only the knowledge required for the middle or lower classes, this permission to be limited to the lower classes exceptionally, when the candidates, with a security and clearness in fundamental knowledge, combined distinguished talent of explanation, an excellent skill in the treatment of the young, and a prepossessing appearance." A the same time the Department expressed a confident expectation that the commissions for examination would never lose sight of the fact, that the short course of three years at the university could only serve to collect a sufficient material; and therefore a complete, thorough, and in all parts finished knowledge, and a solid penetration into science, could not be required; much more they should see, if the candidates, besides a general knowledge, had actually laid the foundation in one of the principal branches, on which farther to build, and had an intelligent comprehension and spirited digest of the sciences chiefly cultivated by them at the

university. For able candidates of this class the Department in 1857 created a higher degree: *conditional facultas* for the middle classes.

On February 4th, 1838, a second circular to the school-collegiums was issued, in which the directors of gymnasiums were designated as suitable persons to advise young men in the upper classes, if not thought qualified for the profession, to desist from pursuing studies requisite for teachership, and to represent to abler ones the extent and difficulties of the object. But directors have seldom been in a situation to execute this charge. During the first ten years the proportion of candidates to vacant positions was unfavorable to the former, but soon after 1848 it changed, so that the want of teachers becoming more sensible, the Department of Instruction, under order of Oct. 16th, 1858, promised to assist students in the upper classes, in cases of poverty, if they felt a desire to devote themselves to the profession and were willing to pursue the necessary studies, beginning even at the time of their attendance at the gymnasium, and the directors were instructed to make proper application to the Department. It is not known whether recourse has ever been had to this measure. The general examination in religion and philosophy, as ordered by the cabinet order of Aug. 21st, 1824, was amended by rescript of March 3d, 1848, by requiring that the testimonials of candidates who had not passed this examination satisfactorily, should contain a provision that the candidate, before being definitely engaged, must prove in a second examination that he has acquired the requisite knowledge in the above sciences. It was chiefly intended thus to enlarge the knowledge of religion of future teachers, and to form teachers of religion not from theologians only. The same object was aimed at by a circular of the ministry of Von Raumer of Dec. 9, 1853, directed to the faculties of theology, requiring of them to introduce suitable lectures, which was done by some distinguished professors, but in spite of the desire repeatedly expressed under date of May 10th, 1865, they were never generally introduced by the faculties. The commission for examination, however, was instructed, from the year 1857, invariably to exact a report from the candidates for higher teachership, in how far and in what manner, during their academical studies, they had endeavored to increase and improve a scientific knowledge of religion.

By the above-named circular of Feb. 8d, 1838, theology and the Hebrew had been made the fourth principal part of examination; but by another cabinet order of Dec. 21st, 1841, candidates of theology, when they had obtained an excellent testimonial from the commission for examination in theology, should be considered qualified for teaching religion and the Hebrew language; and should be further examined only as to their ability and method of teaching; but in all other respects they should be subject to the same requirements as candidates for teachership. However, since it appeared desirable to gain men of sound education in theology as teachers of religion at secondary-schools, it was decreed by order of the Department, Aug. 10th, 1853, that candidates of theology,

who could produce the certificate of a well passed examination before the commission for theology, should be admitted to the examination *pro facultate docendi*. If they desire to acquire the qualification of "*unconditional fac. doc.*," they must satisfy all general conditions; the qualification for *conditional fac. doc.* may be imparted to them: 1, if by a trial lesson and oral examination, which is limited to didactic ability and the peculiar requirements of teaching in higher classes, they prove their ability to teach religion and the Hebrew in the first class of a gymnasium; and 2, if they prove their ability to teach (a) Latin, Greek and German, or (b) mathematics and natural science, in the third class of a gymnasium, or (c) either one of these subjects in the first class.

Catholic clergymen, according to rescript of March 26th, 1863, when they have been promoted by an inland university or by academic rule to the degree of doctor or licentiate of theology, are not subjected to an examination in theology in order to become qualified as teachers of religion, but their ability of teaching religion or the Hebrew in the different classes remains subject to trial by the commission of examination.

By ministerial rescript of Aug. 11th, 1854, members for the examination in French and English are added to the commissions. Candidates who wish to become qualified for teaching French or English, besides a thorough and fundamental knowledge of these languages and their literature, must respond to the requirements of general education demanded from all candidates. However, the rescript of the Department of May 29th, 1865, directs that the admission of teachers of elementary schools who have obtained the *fac. doc.* for those modern languages, as teachers of science at gymnasiums and real-schools, is generally not desirable.

For teachers of drawing at higher schools, to which heretofore teachers had been admitted without special selection, it was directed, April 2d, 1827, that only those should be proposed who were furnished with an attest of qualification by the Royal Academy of Arts, and that such should have preference among applicants. A circular of January 16th, 1828, directed the consistories and school-collegiums of the provinces to give to the Department an exact report on the qualification of each teacher of drawing at the gymnasiums in their province, on the manner and success of their instructions, and on their social position and relation. Since 1863 these candidates are required to submit to an examination by one of the royal academies of Art at Berlin, Königsberg or Dusseldorf.

As teacher of singing, no one can be engaged, since the year 1830, who has not given evidence of his ability to teach singing.

An examination for teachers of gymnastic exercises has been instituted by departmental rescript of March 29th, 1866, for which a commission, including a professor of anatomy, has been formed in Berlin. It takes place at the central institute for gymnastics (erected in 1851, and which proceeded from the central institute for the education of teachers of gymnastics by rescript of Feb. 6th;) under superintendence of the instructors. It was considered desirable that the instructions in gymnastic ex-

ercises should be confided to regular teachers of the schools only, and in order to educate such teachers, a course of six months, for eighteen pupils, was arranged in this institution, in which young teachers could take part without charge, and in particular cases were supplied with funds for their support during this time.

The incompleteness of the regulations for examinations of 1831, notwithstanding the many corrections and explanations, made a revision of the whole necessary, which was executed with the care peculiar to Prussian officials—the plan of a new order of regulations having been submitted to the provincial school-boards, to commissions of examination, and to experienced teachers, for their approbation.

Following the requirements of the law, a commission for examination was not easily constituted. In earlier times it was mostly composed of teachers, more recently counselors of instruction and professors of universities predominated. The first named undoubtedly understand best the necessary qualifications for the school, and require merits of a young teacher; but the limitations of their vocation renders it impossible for them to advance with the development of science, so as to be able to ascertain whether the period of study at the university has been profitably and practicably employed. The others, no longer familiar with schools, can not properly weigh their demands, and are apt to pass beyond the object of pedagogic preparation, or are led in preponderance by their own special scientific researches. The most suitable examiners are those who from the school teacher's chair have passed to that of the university.

IV. PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR SUPERIOR SCHOOLS.

Prior to this century, there were no special arrangements at universities for the education of teachers for secondary-schools, the first being the philological seminaries, the oldest of which is at the University of Halle. By order of the Elector in 1695 and 1697, a part of the revenues of the convent Hillersleben was used for the benefit of some students of other faculties than that of theology, who would devote themselves to the study of "*humaniora et elegantiorum literaturam*," and for those who intended to prepare themselves for teachership at secondary-schools, under the special supervision of Prof. Cellarius, who read every day a free lecture for them, until he died in 1707, when this arrangement ended.

A purely philological seminary was founded in 1787, by the influence of Fr. A. Wolf, which was the first to educate for the profession of teacher separate from theology, and in so far created an epoch in pedagogy. This seminary had twelve regular members, who had already attended a university one year, and were permitted to remain in the seminary for two years only. The exercises of the seminarists, in which a great many of the students of other faculties took part, consisted in interpretation of ancient authors, discussions partly on theses, partly on

compositions of the seminarists, and, for a time also, in the practice of teaching in the upper class of the Latin school of the orphan house at Halle. When this university was closed in 1806, Wolf went to Berlin ; and on its reopening in 1808, Chr. Gottfr. Schuck obtained the directorship of the seminary, and in 1816 was associated with Seidler. After the new regulations of 1817, the object of "training skillful teachers for gymnasiums" was consistently followed up in all later regulations, and by the directors following, Mor. H. Ed. Meier and Bernardy, and exercises for acquiring a genuine style in Latin were particularly fostered. The separation into two divisions, which had been made in 1846 from personal motives, was annulled in 1857, when Bergh entered, after Meier's death.

The second seminary was founded by Professor Erfurt in Königsberg (1810.) The Department of Public Instruction agreed to his proposition for an association, under the name of a seminary, of young men who should, however, on account of want of sufficient preparation, be considered as first students only, from whom afterwards the regular members of the seminary might be selected. Schleiermacher, in voting on the instructions for this seminary, said very justly and well adapted for all times : "The first object is only to excite a love for the study of philology, and after this is awakened and formed, when an individual inclination is developed, free play must be given to it without any hesitation ; but in every way we must prevent young men from limiting themselves to a narrower sphere and from finding their especial vocation therein." The department recommended exercises in writing and speaking of Latin and Greek ; the latter M. Erfurdt desired to postpone at the beginning, but with the annual report of 1812, a "*disputatio de critica artis difficultatibus*" in the Greek language could be presented, which the authorities in Berlin censured only for accents omitted. After M. Erfurdt, the directors of this seminary were Wald, Gotthold, Lobeck, Lehrs.

In 1812, Bockh became founder and director of a similar institute in Berlin, who, with Buttmann, Lachmann, Martin Hertz, and Haupt, have presided over it till now.

The philological seminary at Greifswald, from a philological association, became (1822) a public institution, at first conducted by Henry Meier alone, assisted by Schomann, who subsequently became director ; assisted successively by Martin Hertz, Urlichs, and Ufener.

The seminary at Breslau was established in 1812 ; the two first directors were Gottl. Schneider and Heindorf, who were followed by Fr. Passow, Chr. Schneider, Ritschl, Ambrosch, Haase, the latter since 1856 in connection with Rossbach.

The philological seminary at Bonn was founded in 1819. The directors were Nake and Heinrich, under whom the attendance increased so considerably, that in 1826 it counted ten regular members, twenty-seven extraordinary, and forty-five visiting members. Welcker, who, after the death of Heinrich, became co-director, fostered the study of ancient art

in connection with that of ancient literature, but the interest among the students abated so much, that in 1841 there were only eight regular, ten extraordinary, and sixteen visiting members. After Ritschl was called to the position of Nake in 1839, the interest gradually increased again, so that in 1861 the number of members was eighty, and in 1864, eighty-eight. Eighteen years after the resignation of Welcker, in 1861, O. Jahn was appointed second director. From this seminary a great many excellent scholars have proceeded, who had creditably begun their career at universities and gymnasiums, and it was a matter of universal regret that the difficulties in the year 1865, should have induced so distinguished a professor as Ritschl to leave the service of the Prussian State.

In 1824, a philological and pedagogic seminary was connected with the theological and philosophical faculty at Münster, for the purpose of training candidates for efficient teachers at gymnasiums; its directors were Nadermann, Esser, Grauert, and at present, Deycks and Wineroski.

All exercises in these seminaries were arranged after the course at the seminary of Halle; for regular members, subsidies of forty thalers per year generally, with participation in the studies gratis, are allowed.

The first proposition for the establishment of a seminary for history, for the purpose of giving to a number of students a thorough education in history and enable them to take charge of instruction in this department was made in 1824 by Professor Menzel of Breslau; but the institute was not erected till 1843, when premiums of two hundred thalers were granted. Since 1852, Professor Ropell presided over it, assisted from 1863 by Professor Junkerman, a Catholic, so that a division of instruction according to religious confessions was introduced.

In Königsberg, as early as 1832, a like seminary, with a grant of two hundred thalers, had been established, the first director of which, Prof. Dr. Schubert, still presides; and one at Greifswald (1863) by Prof. Dr. A. Schafer, with yearly premiums of fifty thalers. The seminary founded at Bonn in 1863, with premium of three hundred thalers, is divided into two separate branches, independent of each other, according to its two-fold object: 1, to introduce researches in history; 2, to prepare future teachers of history for gymnasiums. The direction, in order to provide for ecclesiastical preferences, has been given to two professors, Von Sybel, Protestant, and Kampfschulte, Catholic.

Beyond these public institutions, the lectures on history of distinguished professors at the universities of Berlin and Halle, though at first instituted for scientific objects only, have aided very much in training eminent teachers of history for higher schools, particularly those by Leopold von Ranke, and more recently by Droysen, by whom a good number of the best teachers in this branch have been educated.

The first seminary for mathematics and natural philosophy, at Königsberg, adopted, in 1834, preliminary statutes, and obtained as directors, Professors Neuman and Jacobi; and in 1839, by royal order, its subsidy was increased from one hundred and fifty to three hundred and fifty tha-

lers. Since 1843, Prof. Richelot took part in its instruction. At Halle, a seminary for mathematics and natural philosophy was begun in 1838, through the energy of Prof. Kæmz and Prof. Schncke, called thither from Königsberg. Through the influence of Prof. Schweigger, it was, in 1840, extended to all the natural sciences, and consists at present of seven divisions with eight professors. The seminary for mathematics at Berlin was founded in 1861; admittance into it follows upon an oral examination by the directors, and a written trial-composition. The directors are Kummer and Weierstrass; its subsidy, four hundred thalers.

In order to supply teachers of natural history for secondary-schools, and to increase generally the study of the natural sciences, the "seminary for natural sciences" at Bonn was founded in 1825 for fifteen to twenty regular members; its director was Necs. von Esenbeck, and each of the four divisions received a sub-director; afterwards the directorship changed according to election by the members. In 1830, the department directed that a testimonial of qualification should be given to the seminarians upon their leaving, which should relieve them of the examination by the commissions. This regulation was, however, changed in 1845, to giving such a certificate on the basis of an examination. For the furtherance of this institute, the department, in 1831, instructed the provincial collegiums of the eastern provinces to recommend attendance at this seminary to such students, leaving the gymnasiums, who had shown special talents for the study of natural science.

B. Pedagogic Seminaries.—It was of great importance to give to young men who had acquired good knowledge at the universities after they had passed their examination, an opportunity practically to learn the art of teaching. Before the time of Fr. Gedike, the preparation of teachers for secondary-schools was left to chance; but this eminent educator, principally through his own influence, received, Oct. 9th, 1787, the first charge to open a "royal institution of teachers for learned schools," which obtained its constitution under the name of a seminary, Nov. 18, 1788. The first five students received a stipend of one hundred and fifty thalers each, and the seminary was connected with the Frederic Werder gymnasium at Berlin, then under the directorship of Gedike. Its members were considered regular teachers of the gymnasium, and each was charged with ten lessons per week in one of its classes, and moreover they should be ready to take the place of other teachers when the director required them, to make the corrections of written lessons, to prepare testimonials for scholars, and for other practical services. They should be present as visitors during the instructions given by the director or by other teachers, or by some one from among themselves, should associate much with one another in free exchange of observations and opinions, and be under the superintendence of the director and of three teachers. That they might have practice in pedagogic moral treatment of single students, one who needed special treatment was from time to time placed under their care. For their further theoretical education,

they had to prepare a composition on some subject of pedagogy suggested by their own experience, to be submitted to the director, and read and discussed in a pedagogic society established by them. Moreover, the members met once every month in a philological society, over which the director presided. A collection of books, expressly for the members, was procured, for the increase of which, forty thalers per year were set apart. With Gedike, the seminary in 1793 passed over to the gymnasium at the Gray Convent in Berlin, and under Bellermann I. (since 1804,) one member was ceded to the Fred. Werder gymnasium, after most of the seminarists had become in fact assistant teachers. In 1812, the eight members were alternately distributed among the four German gymnasiums, and the directorship, which according to the new instructions of Aug. 26th, 1812, was to be entirely independent of the directors of gymnasiums at Berlin, passed at first over to Solger, professor of the university, who was also a member of the scientific deputation of Berlin, and after his death in 1819, to Prof. Bockh, who was at its head in 1866. Since 1812, the practical pedagogic training of the members has in reality devolved solely on the successive directors of the gymnasiums. The increase in the demand for teachers after 1815 made the execution of the regulations for instruction impracticable; the seminarists, who were permitted to remain four years only at the seminary, if they did not obtain sooner a position as regular teachers, were mostly engaged as assistant teachers at the same or another gymnasium, sometimes at several, and the six lessons per week laid down for them, especially on account of the large demand for teachers after 1848, were often considerably increased; also the rule, to give their instruction in presence of a regular teacher of the gymnasium, and to fill but two lessons in the lower classes, could not be carried out. A decree of the department of Dec. 13th, 1863, made an end to overtasking seminarists with hours of teaching, as contrary to law and to the regular purpose of the seminary; as a maximum, twelve lessons were allowed, for which, however, if not regular lessons of practice for the seminarists, but taken for a time from the regular teachers of the school, they should be properly remunerated. By this, the situation of the seminarists has been improved.

A second pedagogic seminary was established (1804) in Stettin, "for the education of teachers of learned, middle-class, and inferior burgher-schools of the whole of Pomerania," by the aid of the property of the former "St. Mary's Home;" but soon the seminary was limited to eight candidates for higher teachership, who at the same time were assistant teachers of the gymnasium. Professor G. W. Bartholdy was its director up to 1815; since then the directors of the gymnasium have also presided over the seminary, by which, also, in consequence of the instructions made last, July 3d, 1844, the number of members of this institute decreased to four, and a similar arrangement to the original one of the Berlin seminary was effected, which is certainly more practical.

The seminary of Breslau, in the main arranged after the same prin-

eiples, was established in 1818, and stands since 1858, every two years alternately, under the directorship of the Protestant and Catholic provincial school-board. Upon request of the director of the seminary, the commission for examination gives the lessons for the seminarists, and has them reviewed by their members.

The pedagogic seminary at Halle has gradually formed itself out of the theological seminary connected with that university; but has only since 1829 become a separate institute, for it was placed under the supervision of the commission of examinations, and received a director of its own, who must be a practical schoolman, and always professor of the faculty for theology or philosophy. Thus the seminary, as a theologic pedagogium, remained a special division of the seminary belonging to the faculty of theology of the University of Halle-Wittenberg, and according to the new regulation of 1835, the direction should be given to a regular or extraordinary professor of theology, which was again confirmed by rescript of Feb. 18th, 1856. There is a considerable distinction between this seminary and others in this, that its twelve members are divided into a first and second class, and principally students are admitted, who have been one and a half years at the university; qualified candidates of teachership, with good testimonials, can also find admittance. The seminarists are obliged regularly to attend the course of pedagogic lectures of the director, and to present one composition of a pedagogic character every semester. Practical exercises consist principally in teaching lessons, in a branch previously selected, to scholars whom the director collects for this purpose in a class-room, before auditors, and after their withdrawal, a criticism on the teaching by the other members and finally by the director, takes place. Further to acquire self-reliance, the seminarists give lessons in one of the classes of the Francké Institute. The period of membership has been fixed for students at two years, for candidates of teachership at one year; the stipends for members (first class, fifty thalers, second class, thirty thalers) are less than at other seminaries. The entire arrangement approaches that of seminaries for public school teachers; yet at the present time the condition of the students has again found more liberal consideration.

The province of Saxony has moreover a very important institute for the education of teachers, in the "Convict," for six candidates of theology, established in 1856 with the Pedagogium of the Convent of U. L. F. at Magdeburg; the candidates admitted in it must have acquired the qualification *pro licentia concionandi*, with the predicate at least of "good," and must intend to devote themselves to teaching at secondary-schools for a number of years or for life. The object of the "Convict" is, by a scientific and practical training to educate teachers of religion for high-schools, who are able to instruct in other branches of science as regular members of the board of teachers.

O. The pedagogic trial-year.—The arrangements for the education of teachers for higher schools soon proved insufficient for the existing de-

mand. This demand for graduated teachers for gymnasiums, towards the middle of the third decade of our century, became so large, that every candidate for higher teachership, immediately after passing the examination, sometimes on the ground of his testimonial only, received a regular appointment in the province, even as class-professors. At this time the superior officers of the Department of Instruction had remarked that one single trial-lesson (as prescribed by the regulations) was not sufficient to enable them to obtain such a knowledge of the practical usefulness and talent for teaching of a candidate, as was desirable and necessary to a just estimation of those who applied for the position of teacher. For this reason, the Department, Sept. 24th, 1826, caused the introduction of a pedagogic trial-year, according to which, all candidates, qualified by attainments, should hereafter, for at least one year, practically engage in teaching at a secondary school, and thus prove their fitness, before they could be regularly commissioned as teachers of science. The choice of the school should be left to the candidate, but in no school more than two at a time should be admitted, and no candidate be charged with more than eight lessons per week, and in extraordinary cases, to fill a temporary vacancy, at the highest with six lessons more; these lessons were generally given without any remuneration. The selection of classes, in which the candidates should give their lessons for six months or for the year, was reserved to the directors, and these, as well as the class professors, should frequently attend the instructions by the candidates, and amicably discuss their manner of teaching with them. In order to acquaint themselves with the organism of the entire school, and to gain a view of the art of teaching of experienced teachers, the candidates were expected, during the first months of their trial-year, to visit the different classes during those hours of the day when they themselves were not engaged with teaching, and that they might practice the art of pedagogic discipline, some rude, idle, or ill behaved scholars of the classes in which they were to teach, should from time to time be placed under their special supervision. In all other respects the candidates should be considered regular teachers, and at the expiration of the trial-year should receive a testimonial on the skill in teaching they had acquired, and on their practical usefulness, signed by the director and the class-professors. Since 1832, the candidates receive a testimonial as to the trial-year only, which, since 1844, is signed by the director alone; a detailed certificate is sent to the Department of Education, and since 1858 to the school-collegium of the province.

This arrangement, which coincided with the period when higher schools were amply provided with teachers, gave a desirable support to qualified candidates, and at the same time the opportunity for practice in their profession, but to directors it gave an additional duty, and to the schools a burden often injurious. The directors, already constantly engaged, with few exceptions did not trouble themselves much about these passing pedagogues, and the class-professors not at all; thus the

trial-year was beneficial only as a process of refining by which talented teachers were separated from incapable ones.

Minister von Eichhorn issued, April 3d, 1842, a new instruction on the trial-year, according to which "the candidate should at first, by visiting classes, conversing with directors, class-professors and other teachers, gain a view of the organization of the school; 2, for a long time visit those classes in which he is to teach, and make himself familiar with the manner of teaching of him whose place he is to take, and with the progress of the pupils; 3, in the selection of subjects for teaching, regard must be had chiefly to his testimonial; 4, he should not be employed all the year in the same class, but an opportunity must be given him to try his ability in other and higher classes, even if only in shorter lessons; 5, the teachers, represented by the candidate, must consider themselves all along as the proper teachers of the subject or the class, and in the commencement be present in all the lessons given by the candidate, and at the end of a lesson make suitable suggestions to him; and as soon as he can be intrusted with the sole care of the class, attend his lessons at least once a week."

Wherever this arrangement was executed with vigilance, it operated most favorably, and while under the previous rules part of the candidates were lost to the profession, by these latter every one, with few exceptions, became a well-experienced schoolman. The scholars were not given over any longer to unsafe experiments of new comers, and the young teacher gradually acquired the necessary authority, under the patronage of his guide, and the confidence and method, so important to independent teaching. A great number of teachers, some of whom are now directors, have thus qualified themselves for the profession. The superabundance of candidates for higher teachership until 1848, rendered the execution of this measure easy, as each candidate estimated it a special favor to be permitted to begin his trial-year directly after the examination, and proved grateful for the permission to teach longer without any remuneration until regularly commissioned. For foreign candidates, it was rendered very difficult to be employed at secondary-schools; the circular of May 28th, 1851, made the examination and trial-year depending upon the consent of the Department of Instruction, and circular of January 27th, 1852, prescribed that after examination and trial-year, none should be engaged at secondary-schools except by permission of the department. But after this time a great change took place in the relations of teachers in Prussia. In many places great zeal was manifested for establishing and extending schools; many teachers resigned on account of age or because they had committed themselves in politics; the favorable prospects for young men in industrial pursuits took away many disciples from the profession of teacher. Thus it happened that the candidates for teachership, not long before in abundance, were in a few years all engaged; so that not only examined candidates were employed as regular teachers, with salary and a full number of lessons, but non-

examined also, under the promise, it is true, to pass their examination within a year, which was however not exacted on account of the want of teachers. This want was in part remedied by facilitating the employment of foreign candidates; and in consequence of the cabinet order of Jan. 27th, 1862, a great many from the North-German States filled vacant positions, so that the employment of non-examined candidates was rarely tolerated, while that of candidates on trial was greatly favored, it being ruled by rescript of Feb. 14th, that they should not teach any longer beyond the lessons for their practice, without receiving compensation, but should have a competent salary, and that all regulations with regard to their exercises in teaching, under supervision and information, should be strictly adhered to.

The trial-year may be held at gymnasiums and real-schools, but only exceptionally at progymnasiums and secondary burgher-schools. The members of seminaries for high-schools are dispensed from it. In fixing the amount for pension, it is not counted as a year of service.

Assistance for travel to foreign countries is only given by the French gymnasium of Berlin, which has two stipends for the education of candidates in the French language.

V. PLAN OF INSTRUCTIONS.

The plan of instructions of Prussian gymnasiums, as elsewhere, has, in the course of time, been subject to many modifications, and we can here only enter nearer upon that by which a uniform order of instruction has gradually been effected.

The requirement for maturity-examination necessarily prepared the way to uniformity in the plan of instructions preparing for it. The Department for Public Instruction concluded, in 1810 at first, to introduce a general plan of instruction, which the Catholic schools should also adopt, and by gradually executing this plan, a ministerial rescript of Nov. 12th, 1812, prescribed that all classical schools which possessed the privilege of qualifying for the university, should adopt the name of gymnasium. Prof. Süvern was intrusted with arranging a general plan of instruction; this plan, submitted to Fr. A. Wolf for his opinion, was modified at different times, then fixed upon to be, in its main points, a guide in the administration of schools, but never published or brought into use generally. The order of instruction of the different gymnasiums, from the individuality of these schools and their directors, maintained great variety for a much longer period, and it was thought a special proof of skill of the directors, in which manner the plan of instruction was laid out by them, wherein they had to give to local circumstances, to the demands of the times, to the need of the institute, to the capacity of the powers for teaching, that consideration which alone, with a just and sensible direction, can be beneficial to schools.

Great credit is due to Bernhardi, the director of the Frederic Werder gymnasium of Berlin, by the publication, in 1812, of the plan of instruc-

tion of the programme for 1812, the second chapter (part one) of which treats on the organization and subjects of instruction. In this he thus speaks of the degrees of instruction in the gymnasium: "Though the gymnasium is a school for classics, and its organization of instruction must tend to this object from the lowest class, yet consideration must be had, in the present condition of school matters, that those also who intend to become tradesmen, mechanics and artists, in the widest sense of these words, should be thoroughly and completely prepared for such vocations. For this purpose, all of the eight classes should be divided into three degrees of education, of which the third and lowest had for its object the practical education for the lower civil vocations; the second more chiefly for the higher civil professions, and the first to impart the required knowledge to future students of the learned professions." On this principle he based the organization of his school, and under the increasing influence he acquired over the whole direction of matters of instruction, his plan became the model for all Prussian gymnasiums.

The same principles pervaded the order of instructions of 1816, (unpublished,) according to which, gymnasiums have the object "not only to assist their pupils in acquiring that measure of classical and scientific education necessary to understand and profit from systematic lectures on the sciences at universities, but also to furnish them with the ideas and sentiments of the highest individual culture. The lower classes give to those also who are not destined for the learned professions, an opportunity to prepare themselves for other vocations which require more knowledge than can be furnished by elementary schools and inferior burgher-schools."

Every gymnasium, after the plan of Bernhardi, was to consist of six classes, with three degrees of instruction; in each of the lower classes, sixth, fifth and fourth, the scholars should spend one year; in the middle classes, third and second, two years; in the first class, three years; that is, at an average, from the ninth to the nineteenth year. The branches of instruction were thus distributed: Latin in the sixth and fifth, each six lessons, in the other classes, eight lessons; Greek in the fourth and third, five lessons each, second and first, seven lessons; German in the sixth and fifth, each six lessons, upper classes, four lessons; mathematics, six lessons; natural science and religion, each two lessons; history and geography, each three lessons; drawing, obligatory to the third, and penmanship, obligatory to the fifth; the total number of lessons to be thirty-two, outside of those for Hebrew, singing and gymnastic exercises. To the French language no place was given, "because the general object of teaching languages in schools was completely attained by the three classical mother languages of Europe, the Greek, Roman, and German." This exclusion was attributable in a great degree to the then existing hatred of the French, through which also parents asked to have their children excused from learning a language which in fact was never struck from the plan of instruction, and remains to this day part of the maturity-examination. The increase of lessons in German is also

connected with the demand of the time; a revived national spirit and the increased study of ancient German literature were infused into gymnasiums. Remarkable is this expression: "The Prussian State is Christian; therefore Christian must be all religious instruction in its public schools, and no room should be given to universal religion."

Instruction in gymnastics, "so important to national education, since the harmonious development of mind and body is eminently necessary for every one, should not be ignored at any school." Notwithstanding this announcement, the reactionary movement of 1819 banished gymnastics for a long period from all public institutions.

Though the plan of instruction mentioned above, afforded but little scope to ancient classical languages, and attributed more importance to modern science, yet not enough had been done to satisfy the constantly increasing utilitarianism, and demand for modern languages, particularly for the English, and wherever burgher or real-schools, beside the gymnasium, did not exist, many concessions had to be made to the pressure of modern ideas by dispensations from the study of the Greek language, or to increased demand in the study of real-science, not rarely requiring the extreme efforts of the pupils. Beyond solitary attacks in periodicals and newspapers against the gymnasiums, the provincial board of Silesia and Prussia petitioned repeatedly for modifications in the plan of instruction of gymnasiums, and in favor of converting some of them into secondary burgher-schools. The Diet of Silesia, Dec. 30th, 1831, in the order of prorogation, received a memorandum of the Department for Instruction, on the studies at gymnasiums of young men who did not intend to enter one of the learned professions. In this the significance of every branch of instruction is pointed out. "It is a proposition void of all foundation," it says in the introduction, "that instructions at gymnasiums should be calculated for a course at universities only, and not in aid of the development of every mental faculty. The subjects taught at gymnasiums, in the order and proportion of progress in the different classes, form a foundation to all superior culture of men, and the experience of centuries, the opinion of experts, speak in favor of the usefulness of all studies, within the sphere of instruction of gymnasiums, for the development and invigoration of the mind and the abilities of youth.

An article written by Lorinser, counselor of the medical faculty, noticed beyond its merits, for exaggerations and superficialities, called forth a great many replies; and each teacher of a gymnasium was requested to give his opinion in writing, and it gave occasion to the circular of Oct. 24th, 1837, prepared by Joh. Schulze. From all reports of the provincial school boards, the department had satisfactory proof that the condition of the health of youth at the gymnasiums was generally entirely satisfactory, and that no reason existed for the accusations of Lorinser. However, the dispute led to the following general plan of instruction:

GENERAL PLAN OF STUDY FOR GYMNASIUMS IN 1837.

SUBJECTS.	Hours per week for each class.					
	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.
Latin,	10	10	10	10	10	8
Greek,			6	6	6	6
German,	4	4	2	2	2	2
French,				2	2	2
Religion,	2	2	2	2	2	2
Mathematics,			3	3	4	4
Arithmetic and Plane Geometry,	4	4				
Natural Philosophy,					1	2
Introduction of Philosophy,						2
History and Geography,	3	3	2	3	3	2
Natural History,	2	2	2	2		
Drawing,	2	2	2			
Penmanship,	3	3	1			
Singing,	2	2	2	2		
	32	32	32	32	30	30
Hebrew,					2	2

In accordance with this general table, a yearly plan should be prepared at each gymnasium, based on considerations of the peculiar wants and fluctuating demands of each class, to which should be added an exact description of the limits to be attained by each class in every branch. "If herein, in regard to the plan of instruction of the different gymnasiums, a free motion is permitted within the limits of general regulations, the number of lessons in religion, the languages and antiquities, and in mathematics, should not be diminished, as these are eminently fit, by their vivid connection, to realize the purposes of instruction, and therefore the position they occupy, as chief parts in the organization, must not be removed." It was from a just appreciation of the demands of the time, that a certain degree of freedom in the selection of what they considered necessary was left to the directors. Commencing the study of French in the third class made instructions in this language almost fruitless; for teaching natural history, teachers were wanting; two lessons in history in class I. was not enough, if this important branch was to be treated thoroughly in the highest class; so the school-board concluded to begin the study of French in the fifth class, to add the time for natural history to geography, to increase the hours of instruction in the second and first class to thirty-two, and to make other changes as the directors advised, which from the vigilant supervision of the board did not prove injurious. On the basis of the experience of the last twenty years, and of the changed demands in instruction, a modified plan was devised, by ministerial rescript of January 7th, 1856, which was intended to reduce the hours and concentrate the subjects of instruction:

STUDY PLAN ADOPTED JAN. 7, 1856.

SUBJECTS.	Hours per week for each class.					
	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.
Religion,	3	3	2	2	2	2
German,	2	2	2	2	2	3
Latin,	10	10	10	10	10	8
Greek,			6	6	6	6
French,		3	2	2	2	2
History and Geography,	2	2	3	3	3	3
Mathematics and Arithmetic,	4	3	3	3	4	4
Natural Philosophy,					1	2
Natural History,	(2)	(2)		2		
Drawing,	2	2	2			
Penmanship,	3	3				
	28	30	30	30	30	30

Admittance to class VI., according to regulations, takes place after the age of nine years; fluent reading of German, in German and Latin type, a legible handwriting, facility in writing from dictation, without great mistakes, and knowledge of the principles of arithmetic, are required. The length of the course in each class remained as fixed by circular of Oct. 24th, 1857: for the sixth, fifth, fourth, one year each, for the third, second, first, two years each, for the third and second, according to progress, a shorter period.

In the three upper classes of a gymnasium they read: Cæsar, Curtius, Livy, Cicero, Quintilian, Sallust, Tacitus; of poets, Ovid, Virgil and Horace; Cæsar and Curtius are read in full; of the others, selections suitable for scholars, so that in a certain period the same parts must be reviewed; but preference on the part of the teacher, for greater variety in the reading matter, must not withdraw any thing suitable from the scholars. Seldom are two prose writers read in one class, and never two poets. Special editions for schools are not prescribed; the well-mean attempt to prescribe the same edition for all scholars of one class will be defeated by the prejudice of parents. The editions of Weidmann and Täubner are most in use and are recommended.

In the first class, sometimes in the upper part of the second class, free Latin compositions are occasionally required, four to six within six months. Frequent exercises in Latin were required in the beginning of this century, and lectures on ancient history were then delivered in this language, so that on certain days only Latin was spoken at school. Co-incident with the demand for the modern studies and for practical interpretation of ancient authors, lectures in Latin gradually diminished; they were even considered an affectation, and no longer practiced by young philologists, so that, notwithstanding an urgent recommendation to students of medicine and jurisprudence, (circular of Jan. 7th, 1826,) they entirely disappeared from many gymnasiums. The regulations for

maturity-examination of 1834 decreed again that the examination in Latin should be held in this language, and opportunity should be given to all to show their fluency and ability of expressing themselves in Latin in a well connected discourse. Circular of Jan. 12th, 1856, extended this regulation also to the examination in the Greek language; but to revive speaking in Latin, it requires well practiced teachers, as well as a natural aptitude for it among those who favor the same; hence the regulation of Dec. 24th, 1861, suggests that in the testimonial of final examination for theologians, the degree of their fluency in speaking Latin should be noted, and the examined should be exhorted not to neglect the practice of it.

Greek.—The reading of Greek authors commences in the upper division of class III., with Xenophon's *Anabasis*, and is chiefly limited to the writings of Xenophon, Demosthenes, Plato, Thucydides, to which are added Homer in class II. and Sophocles in class I. They proceed on the same principles as with Latin. The prominence given to this study in the first part of the present century, by reading even Pindar, Aristophanes and Æschylus, was limited to a less measure by ministerial rescript of Dec. 11th, 1828, to the task of understanding, without difficulty, authors like Homer and Xenophon, and to the reading of selected tragedies of Sophocles and Euripides, and the easier dialogues of Plato. To read selected parts of Thucydides was permitted to such scholars only who had acquired great efficiency in the interpretation of Xenophon. Exercises in translating from German into Greek are intended only to familiarize with the rules of grammar; and for this purpose one hour per week is devoted to writing or extemporizing in Greek. Written exercises in both languages, dictated by the teacher, are highly prized, and determine the standing of each scholar in his class.

Mathematics.—Instructions in this branch, as long as four lessons per week were set apart, were subdivided by the class teacher, with the consent of the director, that in the first course of six months, (semester) geometry was taught, and in the second course, arithmetic; or that two lessons were alternately devoted to each subject. But since 1856, in classes IV. and III., only three lessons per week are devoted to mathematics; either but one subject is taught in each semester, leaving it to the industry of the scholar and to occasional reviews to attain the other, until his promotion to the next class, or in the different grades of instruction, now geometry and now arithmetic are alternately placed in the foreground. Instructions in Hebrew, singing and gymnastics are given after school hours, as also in drawing for the middle and upper classes. Deviation from this plan is permitted only with the consent of the board of instruction, when required by the local or geographical condition or the endowments of the school. Discretion is allowed, 1, to increase the lessons in German in the lower classes, where the teaching of Latin and German is supposed to be under one teacher; 2, to devote the hours fixed for instruction in natural history, when no suitable teacher for this

branch is engaged, in classes VI, and V, to the study of geography and arithmetic, and in class III, to history and French.

Mental philosophy is no longer designated as a part of instruction, but the essential part thereof, the fundamental principles of logic, may be connected with the lessons in German in class I. It is also left to the provincial school-board to charge one of the teachers of mathematics or of philology with the necessary instructions in mental philosophy, and to increase his hours of teaching by one, limiting thereby the number of lessons in German to two. To omit the study of Greek is only permitted when in smaller cities the gymnasium has to accommodate students who do not desire to prepare themselves for such learned professions as require the full education of a gymnasium, but who desire to acquire a general education for civil vocations.

"The execution of the general plan of instruction," says the cabinet order, "can produce the intended effect on the young confided to the gymnasiums, only when the teachers of the school are conscious of their labor being a work common to all, where the activity of the one finds its completion in the activity of the other, and therefore all must work in harmonious connection." Teachers in their lessons and plan of instruction must not disregard the prescribed books of science or tables of history, etc., lest the scholars would not receive the benefit intended, which consists mainly in familiarity with a well defined subject. Increased attention is required by the department to be given to written lessons, the extent of which was limited to a proper measure by circular of May 20th, 1854. Directors must take frequent cognizance of the subjects for composition, and of all written lessons, to prevent any overtaxing or unsuitable selection. In order to give students an opportunity, before they leave the gymnasium, to acquire a thorough knowledge of ancient classical literature, within the limits prescribed for gymnasiums, a circular rescript of April 11th, 1825, recommended private lectures at all gymnasiums, which have been given by the greater part to this day, the director and teachers readily undertaking this additional work. Certain it is, that the revival of free private study outside of regular school lessons, must have a beneficial influence on the independent attendance of lectures at universities.

Religion.—Instruction in religion has attained increasing significance at the secondary-schools since 1815. The regulations for examination of 1812 contained no provisions for special inquiries as to the knowledge in religion required of candidates. The circular of the school-board of the province of Brandenburg, of Aug. 4th, 1826, which was adopted by others for a long time, though finding not a few teachers suitable for teaching religion, for the greater part of them had studied theology, yet found but few qualified by examination, as an examination of candidates with regard to ability in teaching religion, was not ordered until 1824. The quick and sincere religious spirit of that time itself required that instruction in religion should occupy equal rank with the most important branches, and great value was ascribed to it. The plan of teaching religion included

Biblical history in the lower classes, committing to memory the chief parts of the catechism, with references from the Bible, and suitable hymns; in the middle classes, concise lectures on the doctrines of religion, based on the catechism of Luther; in the upper classes, introduction to the books of Holy Scripture and history of the Christian religion, with particular attention to the interpretation of doctrines, and to the reading and expounding of entire parts and books of Holy Writ. The class-professors were designated as suitable teachers of religion in exceptional cases by the "instruction for directors of 1824," and to them instruction in religion was confided, if possible. Important for the leading principles under the administration of Altenstein, is the memorandum added to the address at the prorogation of the fourth Prussian Diet, of May 3, 1832. The Diet had desired the employment as teachers of well known religious theologians, which elicited this reply: "I have always hesitated to introduce this arrangement in the Protestant gymnasiums, or to make it general, because the teachers of the gymnasium would thereby lose influence of a religious and moral character upon their scholars, and might be prevented from having that spiritual communion with them which might prove a blessing to them for life." Under the administration of Eichhorn, a decree of Aug. 17, 1842, required that instructions in religion at gymnasiums should be confided to candidates of decided piety, and if school-boards were in want of suitable persons, they should apply to the Evangelical Pastors' Association in Berlin, which from an ample choice was always able to comply with their requests. But little use was made of this offer, and after 1848, great efforts were made to supply secondary schools with well qualified teachers of religion who were not of the theological profession. A report on the existing number of such teachers, and on their qualification and right of teaching religion, called for in 1854, caused this right to be withdrawn from many a teacher qualified by testimonial of examination, but not suitable as shown by his practice in teaching, whereas now candidates were engaged who possessed the required knowledge in religion, but were not capable of spiritual sympathy with the young. Lately, (by circular of school-board, July 5th, 1865,) the directors in the province of Brandenburg, at the request of the royal consistory, have been instructed in the report of their plan of lessons to specify the teachers who shall impart instruction in religion, and the extent of their qualification from testimonials, as well as to designate the classes in which they are to teach religion.

The parochial classes of catechumens are attended by the pupils of a gymnasium for one or two years; before 1856, lessons in religion were given at the same time with the instructions of catechumens, so that the latter could not attend their classes. When by the new general plan the number of obligatory lessons has been decreased to thirty, this division ceased.

Divine service in school, and prayer in the morning and evening, take place only at private institutes and alumnates; for other schools it has

been recommended, by circular of Aug. 4th, 1826, to promote, as far as possible, the attendance of scholars at public worship, without however exercising any constraint or painful control. With regard to the commencement and close of vacations, a regulation from the department, of April 2d, 1853, declares that the duty of the Sabbath or of holy days should not be interfered with by obliging scholars to travel on such days, but as it did not attain this object, it has been set aside again. Participation of teachers and scholars at holy communion is not recommended, except at private boarding-schools; in the other schools, whenever it takes place, it is limited to the voluntary attendance of those scholars whose parents do not reside at the place.

Gymnastics.—Instruction in gymnastics has been formally recognized again, by cabinet order of June 6th, 1842, as a necessary and useful part of the education of boys, and as a part of the means of public instruction. Gymnastics should therefore be added to the parts of instruction, and connected with all public institutions, be placed under the superintendence of the directors, and care should be taken that physical exercises be had to a proper extent, with due simplicity of object and manner. The instructions given on the royal central gymnastic institute are in close connection with the system at present introduced into the army for the military training of soldiers, and due value is ascribed to the fact that proper practice in gymnastics at school promotes the military efficiency of the nation. The introduction of gymnastics into the organization of schools met with no difficulty in smaller cities, of small distances and with vacant ground; but in larger cities, particularly in Berlin, it was difficult to introduce this branch, notwithstanding all the enthusiasm manifested in its favor. As the regulation of June 6th, 1842, makes the participation in physical exercises solely dependent upon the free consent of parents or their representatives, gymnastics, notwithstanding the attention given by the teachers, are attended by not one-fourth of the scholars of large schools, the place for exercises being three miles distant and the homes of scholars scattered throughout the whole city.

Stenography.—Instruction in stenography has been introduced during the last twenty years, chiefly after the system of Stolze, and by the influence of its adherents, and has moreover been practiced at higher schools or by single scholars in private courses, and many patrons of city-schools have furnished means for its introduction as a side branch of instruction. Also the House of Representatives, on account of the many (thirty) petitions presented in favor of a faculty for stenography, has (June 27th, 1862,) recommended it to the favorable consideration of the Government. The Department of Instruction has not yet consented to the introduction of this mechanical art into the plan of lessons, it being serviceable for particular purposes only, but have permitted the use of class-rooms for private lectures.

In some schools the same teachers conduct the instruction of scholars through several classes; though this arrangement leads to a more exact

knowledge of the abilities and disposition of scholars, it soon becomes a tiresome monotony for them even under the best teacher.

VI. REAL-SCHOOLS AND HIGHER BURGHER-SCHOOLS.

It is not our province here to speak of the object and aims of real-schools, but of their history and condition in Prussia. The name was first used by Deaconus Chr. Semler of Halle, and in 1738 the royal government and the royal society of sciences established a real-school for mathematics, mechanics and agriculture, which however had but a short existence. More importance was acquired by the school founded by J. Julius Hecker in Berlin, (1747,) after many futile experiments, and even dwindling down into an elementary school for a time, by being at last organized by A. Spillecke, since 1822 director of the Frederic William gymnasium, with this object: "To combine the demands of a finished general education with practical training for civil life." The Prussian gymnasiums had always for their object the fundamentals of a finished education, but the spirit of the age now turned away from old, well tried means of instruction, and looked for the success offered by the so-termed real sciences, at least for pupils not intending a collegiate education. The following chronological review gives further details. The expectations built on these schools by the public among mechanics and tradesmen, were not fulfilled. The real-gymnasium, formed in 1829 out of the old Coeln-School at Berlin by the efforts of the mayor of the city, Von Baerensprung, gradually transformed itself in 1849 into a regular gymnasium, with little modifications in the plan of instructions, and real-schools readmitted the study of ancient languages in a more extended form. Moreover, with equal privileges, attached in 1852 to the satisfactory final examinations at these schools, of entering the postal service, that of architecture or the military profession, etc., there existed a great variety in the amount of learning acquired at individual schools, particularly at those of provincial cities. Still greater inconveniences resulted from the final examination being in some branches equal with that at gymnasiums, and the uniform privileges of classes, for it happened that students from real-schools, who had passed the final examination there, entered the upper division of class III, where, with a total want of knowledge of the Greek language, they only satisfied the requirements of that class in other respects. Therefore a reorganization of these schools became necessary, which was effected after calling for the advice of the provincial school-boards, by the order of instruction and examination for real-schools and secondary burgher schools, of October 6th, 1859. A memorandum on this (published by Wilgaud and Grieben) contains: *a*, for real-schools, 1, the plan of instruction and inner organization; 2, the regulations for final examination; 3, wherein real-schools differ from gymnasiums, and the privileges of the former. (B.) The same for higher burgher-schools. In explanatory notes we find: "The real and higher burgher-schools have the object to prepare, by scientific education, for

these higher vocations of life, for which academic studies are not required. Therefore the practical requirements of the time are not a measure for their organization, but the object to develop the mental faculties of the young intrusted to the care of these schools, to such a degree as to enable them for a free and independent realization of the duties of life afterwards. They are not technical schools, but, like the gymnasium, they work by general means of education and for fundamental knowledge. There is consequently no opposition in principle between gymnasium and real-school, but a relation of mutual completion. Both divide among themselves the task to offer the elements of complete instruction in what pertains to the different professions and vocations of life." A division has become necessary by the progress of science and the development in the relations of public life, and real-schools have herein adopted a coördinate position to the gymnasium.

Real-schools of the first and second order are distinguished mainly by having introduced the study of Latin, according to local demand, with the technical branches; further by limiting the course of classes III, and II, to one year, and reducing the requirements in some branches of examination to a lesser degree, in accordance with which the demands on these schools, their teachers, means of instruction, and endowments, are inferior.

The plan of instruction for real-schools of the first order, is the following:

PLAN OF STUDY FOR REAL-SCHOOLS IN 1859.

SUBJECTS.	Hours per week for each class.					
	VI.	V.	IV.	III.	II.	I.
Religion,	3	3	2	2	2	2
German,	4	4	3	3	3	3
Latin,	8	6	6	5	4	3
French,		5	5	4	4	4
English,				4	3	3
Geography and History,	3	3	4	4	3	3
Natural History,	2	2	2	2	6	6
Mathematics and Arithmetic,	5	4	6	6	5	5
Penmanship,	3	2	2			
Drawing,	2	2	2	2	2	3
	30	31	32	32	32	32

Several real-schools of the second order exclude the Latin, of which the two at Berlin, named "technical schools of the city," are the most prominent; they increase correspondingly the lessons in German, French, mathematics, arithmetic, natural history, and drawing.

Real-schools connected with gymnasiums under one director, must have, in common with the latter, besides a preparatory department, only classes II, and I. Common order of discipline—teachers, school-house, instructions in singing and gymnastics, religious worship and other exercises—has always been of good influence on the real-schools.

The name of "higher burgher-schools" had been adopted by many real-schools previous to 1859; since then, those are included in that denomination which have only five classes, including the second, but beyond that are organized completely after the regulations for real-schools. The testimonial of final examination entitles to admission in class I, of a real-school of the first order, and to the privilege of military service of one year.

VII. GENERAL MATTERS.

The chronological table of Higher Schools, which we furnish hereafter, will show in what periods of time, and with what rapid increase in late years they have been created and developed, and what zeal has been manifested by State, communities, and associations. The increase of population and the growing desire for education augment the attendance at Higher Schools in a degree still entirely out of proportion with their number. Though a number of scholars which director and teachers can not look over at a glance, is certainly an intolerable condition, yet a general law fixing their number in classes and for the entire school, has not been enacted. In general it is a rule for gymnasiums, which is exceptionally applied at some with great inconveniencce, that in classes I, and II, not above forty each, and in the other classes not beyond fifty; in the upper classes of real-schools thirty in each, in the middle classes forty, in the lower classes fifty, should be admitted. The lesser number for real-schools has been adopted, because apparatus for demonstrative instruction would become unprofitable to a great many scholars. With a greater number of scholars in permanent attendance, parallel divisions of classes must be arranged. A community can obtain the consent of the department for establishing a higher school, after furnishing satisfactory evidence that the elementary schools of their locality are insufficient, and that ample provision has been made for school-houses and endowments. Many communities have thought it a special honor to erect splendid school-edifices.

The scholastic year commences, varying with different provincial or local custom, at Easter or Michaelmas; with all Catholic institutions, and pretty generally throughout the Western provinces, at Michaelmas; with Protestant schools at Easter. In the former, the admittance of new scholars and removal to higher classes takes place generally but once a year, in the Fall season. Though annual courses of instruction are considered more practical, from a didactic and pedagogic point of view, the administration has as yet not introduced a general uniformity, in consideration of local circumstances. Where the admittance of scholars is not limited to one term in each year, as for instance in larger cities, it takes place at Easter and Michaelmas, from which two removals into higher classes necessarily result.*

* We here append a note on attendance in classes, taken from that excellent work on secondary-schools in Prussia by Wiese: "A general law on the number of scholars in classes and entire school's does not exist. It is generally accepted that in classes I, and II, not above forty, in the

Vacations.—The vacations depend upon the period of the scholastic year. By ministerial circular of Nov. 6th, 1858, their duration is fixed at ten and a half weeks per year. The longer vacations of four weeks of Protestant schools in the Eastern provinces fall in the month of July, and two weeks at the end of the Summer course; with most Catholic schools, and generally throughout the province of the Rhine, and in part in Westphalia, the vacation of six weeks comes at the end of the annual course.

School-books and means of instruction.—According to instructions for royal consistories, of October 23d, 1817, the examination of school-books in use at the time, as well as the selection of books to be rejected or of new ones to be introduced, and the supervision in the publication of new school-books, was committed to this authority, submitting all decisions to the approval of the Department of Instruction. A general revision of all the school-books introduced was ordered by ministerial rescript of April 24th, 1837; but such liberty reigned in the use of the same, that not only directors, but single teachers selected after their own opinion. This caused the regulation of June 14th, 1848, which instructed directors to obtain the approbation of the provincial school-board for every new book to be introduced. The school-board, unless the book had been approved previously, reported to the Department of Instruction. Attention was called again to this regulation under date of April 28th, 1857, together with an instruction to work for greater simplicity and uniformity in the means of instruction, and with this limitation: "When the introduction of a book for one gymnasium or progymnasium in a province has been approved, other gymnasiums, etc., of the province can introduce the same without further consent; the same with regard to real-schools and secondary burgher-schools; but a book approved for gymnasiums and progymnasiums is not at the same time approved for real-schools and secondary burgher-schools." Special books or other means of instruction are recommended in circulars, without obligation to adopt them; all in use must be mentioned in the annual programme of the school.

School Programmes.—The publication of school-programmes is of old date. In these the director advised the public annually, inclosing an invitation to the public examination of the most important events in his school. A scientific or pedagogic subject of general interest was generally connected with it. Mutual exchange of these programmes among the different gymnasiums occurred rarely before 1822, in which year their exchange by all gymnasiums was ordered. Circular of Aug. 23d,

other classes not above fifty, should be admitted. With a permanent greater number, parallel divisions of classes must be arranged. The tabular summaries show how difficult it has been in many places to be confined to these limits." The tables are given, p. 466, and demonstrate an over-crowding, dangerous to the result of instruction. If in classes I and II, are fifty-three and seventy-three pupils, as during the summer of 1843 in Lyck, or fifty-two and sixty-four, as in Brieg, in the first class sixty-one, as in Rosenberg, fifty-five, as in Zullichau, fifty-three, as in Glogau and Ratibon; or in classes IV, V and VI, seventy-five, seventy-three, fifty-nine, as in Königsberg; sixty-one, fifty-nine, fifty-four at the same; sixty-two, seventy-nine, sixty-three in Elbing; seventy and seventy-five in Tilsit; fifty-four, sixty-two, ninety in Culm; fifty-eight, eighty-four, one hundred and ten in Prenzlau; seventy-two, sixty-eight, seventy-one in Posen; seventy-five, sixty-nine, seventy in Bromberg, etc., then the maximum has been passed to a dangerous extent, and the endeavor of the administration to remedy this evil by a division of classes is but too just.

1824, directed uniformity in form and contents of the programmes. The first part should consist of a treatise on a subject not foreign to school matters, of general interest at least for the educated, instructive for public schools in general or for gymnasiums in particular, the choice of which, within this description, to be left to the author; it is also permitted, in place of such treatise, to publish suitable discourse delivered in the gymnasium during the year. This scientific treatise had to be composed alternately in the German and Latin languages, and the director and each teacher, one after the other, were to write the same. The second part, in German only, to be furnished by the director, contained information on school matters and plans of teaching. Copies of these programmes were sent to all the universities in the State, and to public libraries, and for exchange with all higher schools were remitted to the provincial school board; this exchange has been extended, through the Department of Instruction, since 1836, to nearly all the German States, the empire of Austria, and for a time to Denmark.

Books of Reference, Cabinets, etc.—Libraries, some of great value, as for instance that of the Joachimthal gymnasium at Berlin, can be found at all higher schools, and considerable funds are provided for their increase. Many institutions, since 1830, possess libraries for scholars which have been made up almost exclusively by contributions from the scholars and their patrons, for the object of putting within reach of students a suitable selection of publications, and to guard them against injurious reading. There are no general regulations in the administration of libraries, but each school has its own rules. The annual school-programme contains a list of all new books procured within the year. Moreover, gymnasiums have cabinets of musical instruments, of apparatus for natural philosophy and chemistry, cabinets of zoölogy, botany, etc., and other collections, generally the result of donations.

Discipline in Schools.—Though a general order of discipline for these schools does not exist, they are conducted in a uniform manner on the basis of instructions for directors and class-professors, and other circulars. A spirit of order, obedience and industry, to call forth which and to preserve, is the earnest endeavor of all and every teacher, together with a mutual esteem and affection between teachers and scholars, which lasts far beyond the years at school, predominates at all the higher schools of Prussia, and furthers and secures the good result of their labors. The principal means of discipline are, a sincere fear of God, the example of teachers in morality and learning, a mutual amicable understanding between school and family, an exciting method of teaching, awakening and rewarding a well regulated industry, constant assistance and discreet approval of progress. Thus most discipline is of a positive kind, as promotion to higher positions or classes, tokens of merit, gradation of testimonials, premiums; but the most effective means for many scholars and in most cases is the approval of the teacher and the consciousness of deserving it. A censure from the teacher, particularly when entered on

the class-book, is already a severe punishment, as the class is revised monthly by the directors. Remaining after school is considered a corrective against idleness or inattention, but can not be inflicted without the presence of a teacher or the consent of the director. Extra lessons as a punishment, a remedy frequently applied in English schools, must be given to a limited extent only, with a view to being exercises for improvement. Incarceration for misdemeanor is decreed by the director only, and proves more effective by its character than by long hours or fear of prison; in many schools they have no carcer, (prison,) and this name given to a school-room has the same effect. According to the order of discipline for the province of Westphalia, this punishment can be extended to several days without the usual comfort or diet. Corporal punishments, which at the commencement of this century still were an ordinary means of discipline, but disappeared almost entirely in the course of time, should be dispensed with as much as possible, (circular of the school-board of the province of Brandenburg, March 9th, 1843,) and when inflicted, it should be on the principle that the moral impression of this punishment is a greater means of correction than bodily pain. Exclusion from school may take place, when the scholar has twice attended the annual course of a class unsuccessfully; or, as an extreme remedy, when other means of discipline have failed, or for acts of malice or immorality. But to those removed in this manner, other schools are still open; only they are placed under special surveillance, and in case of relapse they are immediately turned out again. The most effective means of discipline are certificates, recording conduct, attention, industry and progress, and furnishing an extract from the class-books, which from time to time are sent to the parents of scholars for their information, and by numbers I, II a, II, II b, III, indicate the moral standing and degree of knowledge of the scholar.

The position in classes, or, as it is called, order of rank, is fixed at the commencement of each semi-annual course, according to the number of the certificate; and in the upper classes according to date of entry or to the decision of the teachers' conference. But during the course these positions are frequently changed, often weekly, according to merit in recitations or extempores. In the lower classes, the system of change for every lesson is favored, because, with younger boys, beyond the pedagogic object of exciting attention and assiduity by a proper ambition, it answers also a dietetic purpose of interrupting by regulated exercise the fatigue of sitting continually.

The admission of scholars from abroad is left to the choice of their parents or guardians; but none are admitted who are not placed under suitable domestic control. To ascertain this is the duty of the director, and a change of boarding-place must be immediately brought to his knowledge, and he may demand that a scholar conform to his wishes or leave the institution.

Privileges.—A great number of branches of the administration and of

public institutions, with the increased demands by the progress of time on their own accomplishments, have also increased their demands upon the education of those who desire admittance, and the requirements on the one side have become privileges on the other, for those who fulfilled them. Thus the following privileges are attached to secondary-schools, equally for gymnasiums and real-schools:

- 1, Passing the third class: admittance into the first division of the royal horticultural institute at Potsdam.
- 2, Admittance to class II: *a*, entering the postal service; *b*, qualification as technical teacher.
- 3, Frequenting class II, for six months: *a*, entering apprentice of pharmacy; *b*, privilege of one year's military service; (without knowledge of Greek, a six months' attendance at class I, is required for this latter privilege.)
- 4, Frequenting class II, for one year, qualifies for assistant postmaster, and some civil offices.
- 5, Admittance in class II, upper division, entitles to admittance as pupil of the veterinary school.
- 6, Admittance in class I: *a*, entering as clerk in bureaus of subsistence; *b*, qualifies for civil engineer; *c*, for clerkships in the offices of the civil administration of a province; *d*, for clerkships in the subaltern courts of justice.
- 7, Frequenting class I, entitles to admittance at royal academies of agriculture.
- 8, One year's attendance of class II, qualifies for, *a*, clerkships in the bureaus of subsistence, etc., of the army; *b*, of those of the navy; *c*, of those of the revenue service; *d*, entitles to admittance at the final examination of technical schools.
- 9, Testimonial of maturity: *a*, admittance at universities; *b*, qualification for the position of ensign in the army; *c*, gives admittance to the royal academy of architecture in Berlin; *d*, to the royal academy of mining at Berlin; *e*, to the forester's school at Neustadt Eberswalde (provided that a satisfactory examination in mathematics was passed); *f*, the postal service; *g*, to the royal polytechnic institute at Berlin.

Corresponding privileges have been granted to the real-schools of the second order and to higher burgher-schools.

Private Schools and Institutions.—According to the enactments of common law, private institutions and individuals, who intend to follow the vocation of instructing the young, are required to prove their capacity before the provincial school-board, and obtain a testimonial of qualification. This law was revoked in 1811 by the "regulation for Trades, etc., " but re-enacted in 1834, together with the provision that the above testimonial of qualification should not only have regard to knowledge, but also to morality and loyalty in religion and politics. For foreigners the approval by the Department of Education and of the Bureau of Police was required. This regulation was published Dec. 31st, 1839, and di-

rected also that private schools and institutions should be permitted in such places only, where there was sufficient provision for education in public schools. The consent for establishing a private school may be revoked, and is not transferable to another person; it expires when instructions have been suspended for six months. With regard to supervision, private schools are subject to the same regulations as public schools; generally a clergyman is president of the visiting board. By circular from the department, of June 17, 1862, the provincial authorities have been empowered to give to foreigners permission for the establishment of private schools without resort to the Department of Education.

VIII. CHRONOLOGICAL REVIEW.

The higher schools of Prussia may be classified according to date of their foundation:

A. Century VIII. and IX.—1, Cathedral School at Halberstadt, from the time of Charlemagne, transformed in 1818 into Cathedral Gymnasium; 2, Cathedral School at Paderborn, in 1614 Gymnasiu[m] Theodorianum; 3, Convent School at Pruem, in 1814 *école secondaire*, in 1852 Progymnasium; 4, Cathedral School at Münster, in 1588 Gymnasium of the Jesuits.

B. Century X. to XIII.—Convent School at Zeitz about 967, Gymnasium since 1820; 2, School at Treptow on the Rega, in 1170, (Bugenhager's Gymnasium since 1857;) 3, Cathedral School at Stendal, 1194, Gymnasium since 1819.

C. Century XIV.—1, School of St. Maria-Magdalene in Breslau, 1266, Gymnasium in 1643; 2, School of St. Peter's at Berlin in 1276, Coeln Real-Gymnasium in 1829; 3, Latin School at Herford in 1265, Gymnasium Fredericianum in 1766; 4, Cathedral School at Naumburg in 1290, became Cathedral Gymnasium in 1822; 5, School of the Church of St. Elizabeth in Breslau in 1293, Gymnasium in 1562; School of the Convent of Barefeet at Sagan in 1294, turned over to the Jesuits by Wallenstein, Gymnasium in 1846; 7, School at Marienwerder, Gymnasium in 1812; 8, School at Königsberg, Gymnasium in 1818; 9, Kneiphoff's Gymnasium at Königsberg.

D. Century XV.—1, City School at Elbing, (1300,) Gymnasium, (1530;) 2, School at Reuss, (1302,) Electoral Gymnasium, (1773-1802) *école secondaire* (1806,) Gymnasium (1852;) 3, Convent School at Muenchen-Gladbach (1315,) Progymnasium (1846;) 4, Parochial School at Königsberg, about 1335, Gymnasium (1811;) 5, Latin School at Wesel, (1342;) Gymnasium Academicum (1613;) 6, Classical School at Liegnitz, by combination of two parochial schools (1369,) Gymnasium (1814;) 7, Latin School at New Ruppin (1365,) Gymnasium (1812;) 8, Parochial School of St. John in Danzig (1350,) Real-School of first order (1860;) 9, Latin School of Marienburg (1351-1382,) Gymnasium (1860;) 10, Latin Schools of the Knights of St. John (1365,) of the Augustines (1350,) united at Glatz into Jesuits' College (1626,) Catholic Gymnasium

since 1773; 11, Academy at Culm (1886,) Secondary Burgher-School (1862;) 12, from the schools connected with the Norbertine Convent at Wedinghouse, near Arnsberg, was formed in 1643 the Gymnasium Norberti-Laurentianum; 13, two Secondary Schools in the old and new city of Quedlinberg (1540,) Lutheran Classical School in 17th century, and formed into Gymnasium illustre; 14, The old Latin School of the Church of St. Nicholas at Goerlitz, removed to the city in the 14th century, Gymnasium Augustum (1565.)

E. Century XV.—1, Gymnasium Montanum (1420,) Laurentianum (1440,) Cucanum (1450,) at Cologne transformed (1820,) after many changes since 1815 into the Catholic Gymnasium of Marzellen, into Evangelical Frederic Wilhelm Gymnasium (1830,) Catholic Gymnasium of the Apostles (1860;) 2, St. Peter's School at Danzic (1457,) Real-School, first order (1860;) 3, School at Trottau (1480,) Gymnasium (1825,) Real-Sciences introduced (1861;) 4, Latin School at Seehausen, i. A. M. 1482, Progymnasium (1863,) Gymnasium (1865;) 5, Latin School at Aschersleben, Real-School, second order, (1859;) 6, Latin School at Anclam, Gymnasium (1847.)

F. Before the Reformation, in old time, undetermined.—1, Latin School at Linz on the Rhine, called Gymnasium Martianum, Progymnasium since 1855; 2, Latin School of the Catholic Convent Church at Essen, after the Reformation a Lutheran Burgher-School, Gymnasium since 1819; 3, Convent School at Vreden, since 1842 Progymnasium Georgianum; 4, Parochial Schools in the old and new city of Salzwedel, in 1744 united Latin School, in 1819 Gymnasium; 5, Parochial School at Guben, Gymnasium in 1818; 6, Great School at Spandau, Progymnasium since 1058, Gymnasium (1862;) 7, Great City-School at Perleberg, Real-School of first order, (1861;) 8, School at Prenzlau, Gymnasium (1812;) 9, Latin School of the Convent of the Holy Ghost at Breslau; 10, Latin School at Lauban, Gymnasium (1827;) 11, St. Martin's School at Halberstadt, Real-School, first order, (1863;) 12, Latin School at Schleusingen, Gymnasium (1853;) 13, School at Lippstadt, Real-School, first order, (1859;) 14, City-School at Emmerich, Gymnasium (1832;) 16, Parochial School at Luckau, Gymnasium, (1818;) 17, Convent School at Eupen, école secondaire communale (1794,) Secondary City-School (1814,) Secondary Burgher-School (1863.)

G. Century XVI.—*a.* Beginning of the century: 1, Secondary-School at Attendorn, Progymnasium (1825;) 2, Latin School of the Franciscan monks at Duren, Gymnasium (1826;) 3, School of the Convent of St. Severi at Erfurt, Protestant City Gymnasium, (1561,) Royal Gymnasium, (1890;) 4, Reformed School at Kreuznach, école secondaire, (1802,) Gymnasium of four classes, (1819,) of six classes, (1821;) 5, Latin School at Lennep, Secondary City-School in 1855; 6, Parochial School of St. Laurentii at Warendorf, Gymnasium Laurentianum (1857;) 7, Old Cathedral School at Colberg, Real-School (1845,) Gymnasium (1858,) at the same time Real-School, second order, (1863,) and Real School, first order,

(1865;) 8, Latin School at Grunberg, Real-School, first order, (1860;) 9, Evangelical Parochial School at Grossglogau, Evangelical Gymnasium, (1812;) 10, City-School at Stargard, United Royal and Groning Gymnasium, (1812.)

H. Century XVI., b. 1520-1560.—1, Evang. Latin School at Wittenberg, (1522,) Gymnasium (1827;) 2, Evangelical City School at Nordhausen, (1524,) Gymnasium, (1808;) 3, Union of three parochial schools at Stralsund to one classical school, in 1525, Gymnasium since end of 16th century; 4, Latin School at Eisleben, founded by Albert, Count of Mansfeld (1525,) united by Luther with St. Andrew's and St. Nicolas' School to a "chiefly Latin" School (1546,) Gymnasium, (1596;) 5, Protestant Latin School at Königsberg in Pr. (1525,) Real-School, first order, (1860;) 6, Lutheran School at Hirschberg (1526,) Gymnasium (1813;) 7, Union of Cathedral and City Schools at Brieg into City School (1529,) Gymnasium illustre (1569;) 8, Evang. School at Minden, (1530,) Real-School, first order, (1859;) 9, Latin School at Soest (1532,) Archigymnasium (1606;) 10, Evang. City School at Bunzlau (1532,) Gymnasium (1861;) 11, School of Sts. Albinus and Egidius at Cottbus, Latin School since 1537, Gymnasium (1820;) 12, City Lyceum at Frankfurt on the Oder (1539,) Real-School, first order, (1861;) 13, Archigymnasium illustre at Dortmund (1543,) Gymnasium, with Real-School of first order, (1862;) 14, Lutheran Lyceum at Muehlhausen (1543,) Gymnasium (1626;) 15, State School at Pforta (1543;) 16, Pedagogium at Stettin (1543,) united with the Parochial School of St. James (14th century) into Royal and City Gymnasium (1805;) 17, Ducal Gymnasium at Dusseldorf (1545;) 18, Ducal Partic. School at Rastenburg (1545,) Gymnasium (1815;) 19, Lyceum at Wernigerode (1550,) Gymnasium (1863;) 20, Institute of the Convent at Rossleben (1554;) 21, Evang. School at Wetzlar (1555,) Gymnasium (1748;) 22, School of the Reformed Brothers' Union at Lissa (1555,) Provincial Gymnasium (1624,) Royal Gymnasium (1821;) 23, Ducal School at Oels (1556,) Gymnasium illustre (1594,) recognized as Gymnasium (1812;) 24, Convent School at Bielefeld (1558,) soon after extended to Gymnasium; 25, Evang. Classical School at Danzig (1558,) reopened (1817;) 26, Classical School at Thorn (1557,) Real-School, first order, (1861;) 27, Latin School at Trarbach (1557,) Progymnasium (1555;) 28, Gymnasium at Duisburg (1559,) at the same time Real-School, first order, (1862;) 29, School of Sts. Catharine and Amalberg Church at Brandenburg, after the Reformation, Neustadt City School, first director known (1558,) united Gymnasium (1798.)

I. Century XVI., c. after 1560.—1, Classical Institute Hosianum at Braunsberg (1565,) Gymnasium (1811;) 2, Evang. Free School of Preparation for Secondary-Schools at Donndorf (1561;) 3, Union of the three Primary Schools at Greifswalde to one City School (1561,) Gymnasium (1812,) with Real-School, second order, (1859;) 4, College of the Jesuits at Treves (1568,) Gymnasium (1815;) 5, Evang. City School at New-Stettin (1570,) Gymnasium (1640;) 6, Catholic Latin School at Ander-

nach (1578,) Progymnasium (1815,) perfected in 1863 ; 7, the old School at Croffen, extended to a Classical School (1573,) secondary Burgher-school (1862;) 8, School of the Jesuits at Posen, (1573,) Vog. sim. Gymnasium (1804,) divided into Catholic Mary's Gymnasium and Protestant Frederic Wilhelm Gymnasium (1834;) 9, Berlin Gymnasium of the Gray Convent (1574;) 10, Cathedral School at Merseburg (1574,) Cathedral Gymnasium (1820;) 11, School of the Jesuits at Heiligenstadt (1575,) reopened as electoral Mayence Gymnasium (1774,) united with the Catholic Progymnasium at Erfurt (1834;) 12, Latin School at Saarbruck (1580,) Gymnasium and Provincial School (1604,) Gymnasium of six classes (1818-23;) 13, College of the Jesuits at Coblenz (1586,) electoral Gymnasium (1773,) *école secondaire* (1808,) Gymnasium (1814;) 14, Schola illustris at Mörs (1582,) Progymnasium (1824,) completed (1862;) 15, City-school at Tilsit (1586,) Gymnasium (1812;) 16, Provincial school at Lyck (1588,) Gymnasium (1812;) 17, old Latin School, Brandenburg, since 1589 Soldern's School, united with the school in the new city (1797,) Burgher-School (1817-18,) Real-School, first order, (1859;) 18, School in the Convent at Shuttorf, near Bentheim, (1588,) Gymnasium illustre (1591,) removed to Burgsteinfurt, reopened (1853,) with Real-School, second order, from 1861.

K. Century XVI., d. of unknown date.—1, Great School at Coeslin, Royal and City Gymnasium (1821;) 2, City-School at Custrin, Real-School, second order, (1859;) 3, German and Latin School at Elberfeld, Gymnasium (1789;) 4, Lyceum at Landsberg, a W., Gymnasium (1859,) with Real-School, first order, (1862;) 5, Great City-School at Memel, Gymnasium (1860;) 6, Evang. City-School at Pyritz, Gymnasium (1859;) 7, Beginning of an Evang. Classical School at Wehlau, Real-School, second order, (1859;) 8, at Graudenz, *a*, Catholic Classical School in a Jesuit College, Catholic Gymnasium (1781,) Seminary for Catholic primary scholars (1817,) *b*, Evang. Lutheran City-School, Real-School, second order, since 1859; 9, in the second period of the century, Lutheran Parochial School at Insterburg, in 1834 secondary Burgher-School, Real-School, second order, (1859,) Gymnasium with Real-School (1862,) became Real-School, first order, (1862;) 10, Revival of the Classical School at Schweidnitz, suspended during the Thirty Years' War, reopened (1707) as a Lyceum, Gymnasium (1812;) 11, about the end of the century, Gymnasium of the Jesuits at Aix-la-Chapelle, reorganized as Gymnasium (1816;) 12, Secondary-School at Juelich, College of the Jesuits (1664,) Progymnasium (1862;) 13, School of the Franciscan Convent at Wartburg, founded before the 17th century, enlarged to a Gymnasium Marianum (1642,) Progymnasium (1856.)

L. Century XVII.—1, Electoral Institute at Joachimsthal in the Ucker-Mark (1607,) removed to Berlin as Joachimsthal Gymnasium (1650;) 2, Evang. Reformed School at Cleve (1617,) organized after the general plan for Gymnasiums (1782;) 3, School of the Jesuits at Conitz (1620,) Gymnasium (1815;) 4, College of the Jesuits at Neisse (1622,) Catholic Gym-

nasium (1773;) 5, Secondary-School of the Jesuits at Muenstereifel (1625,) Gymnasium (1774-1810,) remodeled (1821;) 6, Collegium Ferdinandum of the Jesuits at Grossglogau (1626,) Catholic Gymnasium (1773;) 7, Jesuit Gymnasium at Coesfeld (1627,) complete Gymnasium (1828;) 8, School of the Jesuits at Roessel (1631,) Progymnasium (1833,) Gymnasium (1865;) 9, Institute of the Jesuits at Breslau (1638,) College and Gymnasium (1659;) 10, Convent-School of the Franciscans at Recklinghausen (1642,) secondary City-School (1820,) Progymnasium (1822,) Gymnasium (1828;) 11, Convent-School of the Franciscans at Dorsten, Gymnasium Petrinum (1642,) Progymnasium (1856;) 12, Latin Convent-School at Neustadt, W. P., (1651,) Progymnasium (1857,) Gymnasium (1861;) 13, School of the Franciscus Minorites at Brilon (1652,) Gymnasium Petrinum (1858;) 14, Gymnasium illustre at Hamm (1657,) Gymnasium (1779;) 15, Gymnasium Dionysianum at Rheine, under direction of the Franciscans (1658,) Gymnasium Dionysianum (1861;) 16, Gymnasium Thomaeum at Kempen (1664,) reopened (1802,) école secondaire (1804,) City-School of four classes (1814,) Progymnasium (1833,) Gymnasium (1857;) 17, Burgher-School at Königsberg, P., (1664,) Real-School, School, first order, (1859;) 18, School of the Jesuits at Oppeln (1669,) Catholic Gymnasium (1773;) 19, School of the Jesuits at Deutsch Krone (1672,) Progymnasium (1823,) Gymnasium (1855;) 20, School of the Minorite Convent at Siegburg (1673,) Progymnasium (1855;) 21, Gymnasium of the Jesuits at Bonn (1673,) Prussian Gymnasium (1814;) 22, Latin School at Magdeburg (1674,) Cathedral Gymnasium (1822;) 23, Frederic Werder Gymnasium at Berlin (1681;) 24, College Royale Française at Berlin (1689;) 25, Latin School at Wipperfurth (1690,) Progymnasium (1855;) 26, Frederic School at Francfort, second order, (1694,) Gymnasium (1814;) 27, Franke's Institutes at Halle; Poor School and Pedagogium (1695,) Latin School (1697;) 28, College Française at Königsberg, Private School (1698,) Royal School (1701.)

M. Century XVIII.—1, The Academy of Knights at Brandenburg, (1705;) 2, Collego of the Augustines at Saarlouis (1707-1789,) Progymnasium (1816,) secondary Burgher-School (1862;) 3, Academy of Knights at Liegnitz (1708;) 4, Evang. School at Landshut (1709,) Real-School, second order, (1859;) 5, Pedagogium of the Convent of our Lady at Magdeburg (1711;) 6, Latin School at Neuweid (1716,) Gymnasium (1819,) partly secondary Burgher-School, partly Gymnasium (1825;) 7, School of the Jesuits at Fraustadt (1722,) dissolved (1773,) reestablished (1781,) Real-School, first order, (1860;) 8, Orphan Home and Institute at Zullichau (1728,) Royal Pedagogium (1766;) 9, Great School at Gumbinnen soon after 1724, Gymnasium (1812;) 10, Enlargement of the Latin School at Potsdam (1739,) Gymnasium (1812;) 11, Gymnasium Mariano-Seraphico-Nepomucenum at Rietberg (1743,) Progymnasium (1825;) 12, Royal Real-School and Frederic Wilhelm Gymnasium at Berlin (1747,) Gymnasium and Real-School, first order, (1859;) 13, Latin School at Leobschutz (1752,) Catholic Gymnasium (1802;) 14, Orphan

House at Bunzlau (1753,) recognized as pium corpus, with the privilege of qualifying for the University (1760,) Royal Evang. Orphan School (1805,) Burgher-School (1814,) now Progymnasium ; 15, first Real-School in Silesia at Breslau (1765,) Schola Frederiana (1776,) Gymnasium (1812;) 16, School of the Franciscans at Hedingen (1770,) Latin School 1818, Gymnasium with Real School classes (1840,) Prussian Gymnasium (1851;) 17, first Commercial School at Magdeburg (1778-1806,) second (1800-1817,) third Technical and Commercial School (1819,) Real-School, first order, (1861;) 18, Latin School at Mulheim on Rh., to 1785, Progymnasium (1855;) 19, Provincial Institute of Education at Jenkau, near Danzic, (1798,) Classical School (1801-1814,) Teachers' Seminary (1819,) secondary Burgher School (1843;) 20, Commercial School at Hagen (1799,) Real-School, first order, (1862;) 21, old Convent School at Eupen (1794-1814,) école secondaire, and secondary City-School, secondary Burgher-School (1868.)

N. Century XIX.—1, Wilberg's Private Institute at Elberfeld (1806,) secondary Burgher-School (1829,) Real-School, first order, (1859;) 2, Real-School classes of the Francké Institute at Halle (1808,) Real-School, first order, (1861;) 3, College of the Carmelites at Cologne, opened as Progymnasium (1808,) secondary City-School (1820,) Gymnasium of the Carmelites (1825,) Frederic Wilhelm Gymnasium (1830;) 4, Catholic Gymnasium at Gleiwitz (1816;) 5, School for Boys at Bromberg (1817,) Real-School, first order, (1860;) 6, Former School of the Jesuits at Bromberg, Gymnasium (1817;) 7, Burgher-School at Breslau (1817,) Real-School, first order, (1859;) 8, old Parochial School at Soran, Gymnasium (1818;) 9, Cauer's Private School opened in Berlin (1818,) removed to Charlottenburg (1826,) Pedagogium (1840,) Progymnasium (1858;) 10, Secondary-School for Boys at Inowraclaw (1819,) Progymnasium (1857,) completed in 1860; 11, the City-School of Crefeld, united with the Scheuten Institute in 1819, Real-School, second order, in 1859; 12, Evang. Gymnasium at Ratibor in 1819; 13, Technical School at Münster in 1822, City Real and Provincial Technical School in 1851, Real-School, first order, 1859; 14, Mathematical Institute at Erfurt in 1822, Real-School in 1834, Real School, first order, in 1859; 15, Secondary City-School at Barmen in 1823, Real School, first order, in 1859; the Progymnasial classes of 1857 became Progymnasium in 1864, Gymnasium in 1865; 16, Lyceum at St. Wendel in 1824, Progymnasium in 1856; 17, City (Fred. Werder's) Technical School at Berlin in 1824, Real School, second order, 1859; 18, Private School at Rheydt in 1827, secondary Burgher-School in 1860; 19, Burgher-School at Erkelenz in 1828, Progymnasium in 1856; 20, secondary Burgher and Real School at Cologne in 1828, Real School, first order, in 1859; 21, Evang. secondary Burgher School at Meseritz in 1833, Real School, first order, in 1859; 22, Royal City Secondary School at Berlin in 1892, Real School, first order, in 1859; 23, Real School at Neisse in 1833, of first order in 1868; 24, Gymnasium at Culm (1832-37;) 25, Stralau secondary City School at Berlin in 1888,

secondary Burgher School in 1860; 26, City School for Boys at Wittstock in 1834, Real School, second order, in 1868; 27, Private School at Dueren recognized as a public one in 1834, secondary Burgher School in 1868; 28, secondary Burgher School at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1835, Real School, first order, in 1861; 29, secondary School for Boys at Muelheim, in 1835, Real School, first order, in 1859; 30, Real School at Nordhausen in 1835, second order in 1859; 31, Real School at Potsdam in 1835, first order in 1859; 32, District School at Krotoschin in 1836, Gymnasium in 1854; 33, Pedagogium at Putbus in 1836; 34, Dorotheenstadt secondary City School at Berlin in 1836, Real School, first order, in 1861; 35, Luisenstadt secondary City School at Berlin in 1836, Real School, first order, in 1859; 36, Real School at Elbing in 1837, first order, in 1859; 37, secondary Burgher School at Goerlitz in 1837, Real School, first order, in 1859; 38, Real School at Dusseldorf in 1838, first order, in 1859; 39, Burgher School at Tilsit in 1839, Real School, first order, in 1860; 40, Frederic Wilhelm School at Stettin in 1840, Real School, first order, in 1859; 41, Rhenish Academy of Knights at Bedburg in 1841; 42, secondary City School at Solingen in 1841; 43, Evang. Private School at Muenchen-Gladbach in 1842, secondary Burgher School in 1860; 44, Gymnasium at Ostrowo in 1845; Private Institute at Hechingen in 1844, pr. secondary Burgher School, 1859; 16, City Real School at Burg in 1844, Real School, second order, in 1859, Gymnasium in 1864; 47, Progymnasium at Hohenstein in 1845, Gymnasium in 1857; 48, secondary Burgher School at Treves in 1846, united secondary Burgher and Provincial secondary School in 1847; 49, Frederic Gymnasium and Real School at Berlin in 1850, the latter to first order in 1859; 50, secondary Private School at Crefeld in 1851, secondary Burgher School in 1863; 51, Private School at Freyenthal, a. v. in 1851, Progymnasium in 1863; 52, secondary Private Institute at Guetersloh in 1851, Gymnasium in 1854; 53, Real School at Stralsund in 1852, first order in 1862; 54, Real School and Progymnasium at Ruwicz in 1853, Real School, first order, in 1863; 55, old City School at Greifenberg, in Pomerania, since 1852 Frederic William Gymnasium; 56, Rectorate class at Schrimm, changed into a Secondary School in 1853, Progymnasium in 1861, Gymnasium in 1866; 57, Real School at Posen in 1853, first order, 1859; 58, old Evangelical Parochial School at Stolp, Pomerania, Real School since 1854, Gymnasium in 1857 with Real School classes, the latter secondary Burgher School in 1860; 59, Real Institute at Ruhrtort in 1857, Real School, first order, in 1862; 60, old Latin School at Demmin, Progymnasium in 1857; 61, secondary School for Boys at Schneidemuehl in 1858, Progymnasium in 1863; 62, Progymnasium at Berlin in 1858, Royal Wilhelm Gymnasium in 1861; 63, old City Lyceum at Luebben, Real School, second order, in 1859; 64, old Royal secondary School for Boys at Kreuzberg, Silesia, secondary Burgher School in 1860; 65, Catholic Gymnasium at the Apostles in Cologne in 1860; 66, old Latin School at Lauenberg, Pomerania, secondary Burgher School in 1860; 67, secondary Burgher

School at Spremberg in 1861; 68, old Evangelical Rectorate School at Luedenscheid, secondary Burgher School in 1862; 69, secondary Burgher School at Neustadt-Eberswalde in 1862; 70, Progymnasium at Gnesen in 1868, Gymnasium in 1865; 71, Real School, second order, at Essen in 1864; 72, Luisenstadt Gymnasium at Berlin in 1864; 73, Sophia Gymnasium at Berlin in 1865; 74, Luisenstadt Technical School, Real School, second order, at Berlin, 1865; 75, secondary Institute at Jauer, Gymnasium in 1865.

IX. SUMMARY OF GYMNASIUMS AND REAL-SCHOOLS ACCORDING TO PROVINCES.

A. GYMNASIUMS.

I. PROVINCE OF PRUSSIA.

- a. *Government of Königsberg*: 1, Königsberg, Frederic College; 2, at the same, old City Gymnasium; 3, at the same, Kneiphoff Gymnasium; 4, Memel; 5, Braunsberg Catholic Gymnasium; 6, Rastenburg; 7, Hohenstein; 8, Roessel, Catholic.
- b. *Government of Gumbinnen*: 9, Gumbinnen; 10, Insterburg; 11, Tilsit; 12, Lyck.
- c. *Government of Danzig*: 13, Danzig; 14, Neustadt, Catholic; 15, Elbing; 16, Marienburg.
- d. *Government of Marienwerder*: 17, Marienwerder; 18, Culm, Catholic; 19, Thorn; 20, Conitz, Catholic; 21, Deutsch-Krone, Catholic.

II. PROVINCE OF BRANDENBURG.

- a. *City of Berlin*: 1, Gymnasium of the Gray Convent; 2, Joachimsthal Gymnasium; 3, Frederic Wilhelm Gymnasium; 4, French Gymnasium; 5, Frederic Werder Gymnasium; 6, Frederic Gymnasium; 7, Wilhelm Gymnasium; 8, Coeln Real Gymnasium; 9, Luisenstadt Gymnasium; 10, Sophia Gymnasium.
- b. *Government of Potsdam*: 11, Potsdam; 12, Brandenburg Gymnasium; 13, Brandenburg Academy of Knights; 14, Spandau; 15, New Ruppin; 16, Prenzlau.
- c. *Government of Frankfurt*: 17, Frankfurt; 18, Landsberg; 19, Königsberg; 20, Zullichau Pedagogium; 21, Gaben; 22, Sorau; 23, Cottbus; 24, Luckau.

III. PROVINCE OF POMERANIA.

- a. *Government of Stettin*: 1, Stettin; 2, Anclam; 3, Pyritz; 4, Stargard; 5, Greiffenberg; 6, Treptow.
- b. *Government of Coeslin*: 7, Coeslin; 8, Colberg, Cathedral Gymnasium; 9, New Stettin; 10, Stolp.
- c. *Government of Stralsund*: 11, Stralsund; 12, Greifswald; 13, Putbus, Pedagogium.

IV. PROVINCE OF SILESIA.

- a. *Government of Breslau*: 1, Breslau, Elizabeth Gymnasium; 2, Breslau, Magdalen Gymnasium; 3, Breslau, Frederick Gymnasium; 4, Breslau, Matthiae Gymnasium; 5, Oels; 6, Brieg; 7, Schweidnitz; 8, Glatz, Catholic.
- b. *Government of Liegnitz*: 9, Liegnitz, Academy of Knights; 10, Liegnitz, Gymnasium; 11, Jauer; 12, Glogau, Evangelical Gymnasium; 13, Glogau, Catholic Gymnasium; 14, Sagan, Catholic; 15, Bunzlau; 16, Goerlitz; 17, Lauban; 18, Hirschberg.
- c. *Government of Oppeln*: 19, Oppeln, Catholic; 20, Neisse, Catholic; 21, Gleiwitz, Catholic; 22, Leobschutz, Catholic; 23, Ratibor.

V. PROVINCE OF POSEN.

- a. *Government of Posen*: 1, Posen, Frederic Wilhelm Gymnasium; 2, Posen, Mary Gymnasium, Catholic; 3, Lissa; 4, Krotoschin; 5, Ostrowo, Cath.
- b. *Government of Bromberg*: 6, Bromberg; 7, Inowraclaw, Cath. and Prot.; 8, Gnesen, C. and P.; 9, Schrimm, C. and P.

VI. PROVINCE OF SAXONY.

- a. *Government of Magdeburg*: 1, Magdeburg, Pedagogium at the Convent of

Our Lady; 2, the same, Cathedral Gymnasium; 3, Snedal; 4, Seehausen; 5, Salzwedel; 6, Halberstadt; 7, Wernigerode; 8, Quedlinburg; 9, Burg.

b. *Government of Merseburg*: 10, Merseburg, Cathedral Gymnasium; 11, Halle, Pedagogium; 12, Latin School; 13, Wittenberg; 14, Torgau; 15, Eisleben; 16, Naumburg, Cathedral Gymnasium; 17, Pforta; 18, Rossleben, Convent School; 19, Zeita, Convent Gymnasium.

c. *Government of Erfurt*: 20, Erfurt, C. and P.; 21, Muehlhausen; 22, Heiligenstadt, Catholic; 23, Nordhausen; 24, Schleusingen.

VII. PROVINCE OF WESTPHALIA.

a. *Government of Münster*: 1, Münster, Catholic; 2, Warendorf, Catholic; 3, Rheine, Catholic; 4, Burgsteinfurt; 5, Coesfeld, Catholic; 6, Recklinghausen, Catholic.

b. *Government at Minden*: 7, Minden; 8, Herford; 9, Bielefeld; 10, Gütersloh; 11, Paderborn, Catholic.

c. *Government of Arnsberg*: 12, Arnsberg, Catholic; 13, Brilon, Catholic; 14, Soest; 15, Hamm; 16, Dortmund.

VIII. PROVINCE OF THE RHINE, AND THE HOHENZOLLERN COUNTRY.

a. *Government of Cologne*: 1, Cologne, Gymnasium at Marzellen, Catholic; 2, Cologne, Gymnasium at the Apostles, Catholic; 3, Cologne, Frederic Wilhelm Gymnasium; 4, Bedburg, Academy of Knights, Catholic; 5, Bonn, Catholic; 6, Muenstereifel, Catholic.

b. *Government of Dusseldorf*: 7, Dusseldorf, Catholic; 8, Elberfeld; 9, Barmen; 10, Duisburg; 11, Essen, sim.; 12, Wesel; 13, Emmerich, Catholic; 14, Cleve; 15, Kempen, Catholic; 16, Neuss, Catholic.

c. *Government of Coblenz*: 17, Coblenz, Cathedral; 18, Wetzlar; 19, Kreuznach.

d. *Government of Aix-la-Chapelle*: 20, Aix-la-Chapelle, Catholic; 21, Dueren, Catholic.

e. *Government of Treves*: 22, Treves, Cathedral; 23, Saarbruecken.

f. *Hohenzollern*: 24, Hedingen, Catholic.

B. PROGymNAsIUMS.

I. PROVINCE OF BRANDENBURG.

Government of Potsdam: 1, Charlottenburg, Pedagogium; 2, Freienwalde.

II. PROVINCE OF POMERANIA.

Government of Stettin: Demmin.

III. PROVINCE OF SILESIA.

Government of Liegnitz: Bunzlau, Inst. of Orphan Home.

IV. PROVINCE OF POSEN.

Government of Bromberg: Schniedemuehl, sim., (for both denominations.)

V. PROVINCE OF SAXONY.

Government of Merseburg: Donndorf, Convent School.

VI. PROVINCE OF WESTPHALIA.

Government of Münster: 1, Dorsten, Cath.; 2, Vreden, Cath.

Government of Minden: 3, Warburg, Cath.; 4, Rietberg, Cath.

Government of Arnsberg: 5, Attendorn, Cath.

VII. PROVINCE OF THE RHINE AND HOHENZOLLERN.

Government of Cologne: 1, Mulheim-am-Rhein, C. and P.; 2, Siegburg, Cath.; 3, Wipperfuerth, Cath.; 4, Kerpen, Cath.

Government of Dusseldorf: 5, Moers; 6, M. Gladbach, Cath.

Government of Coblenz: 7, Andernach, Cath.; 8, Linz, Cath.; 9, Trarbach; 10, Neuwied.

Government of Aix-la-Chapelle: 11, Erkelenz, Cath.; 12, Zuelich, Cath.

Government of Treves: 13, Pruem, Cath.; 14, Sanct. Wendel, sim.

C. REAL SCHOOLS OF THE FIRST ORDER.

I. PROVINCE OF PRUSSIA.

Government of Königsberg: 1, Königsberg i. P., City Real-School; 2, the same, Burgher-School.

Government of Gumbinnen: 3, Insterburg, Real-School class of the Gymnasium; 4, Tilsit.

Government of Danzig: 5, Danzig, St. John's School; 6, Danzig, St. Peter's School; 7, Elbing.

Government of Marienwerder: 8, Thorn, Real-School classes of the Gymnasium.

II. PROVINCE OF BRANDENBURG.

City of Berlin: 1, Royal Real-School; 2, Luisenstadt Real-School; 3, Königstadt Real-School; 4, Dorotheenstadt Real-School; 5, Frederic Real-School.

Government of Potsdam: 6, Potsdam; 7, Brandenburg, Soldern Real-School; 8, Perleberg; 9, Wittstock.

Government of Frankfurt: 10, Frankfurt; 11, Landsberg on the Werta, Real-School classes at Gymnasium.

III. PROVINCE OF POMERANIA.

Government of Stettin: 1, Stettin, Frederic Wilhelm School.

Government of Coeslin: 2, Colberg, Real-School classes at Cathedral Gymnasium.

Government of Stralsund: 3, Stralsund.

IV. PROVINCE OF SILESIA.

Government of Breslau: 1, Breslau, Real-School of h. g.; 2, the same, Real-School of the Zwinger, sim.

Government of Liegnitz: 3, Gruenberg, Frederic Wilhelm School; 4, Goerlitz; 5, Landshut.

Government of Oppeln: 6, Neisse, C. and P.

V. PROVINCE OF POSEN.

Government of Posen: 1, Posen, sim.; 2, Meseritz; 3, Fraustadt; 4, Rawicz.

Government of Bromberg: 5, Bromberg, C. and P.

VI. PROVINCE OF SAXONY.

Government of Magdeburg: 1, Magdeburg, Secondary Technical and Commercial School; 2, Halberstadt; 3, Aschersleben.

Government of Merseburg: 4, Halle.

Government of Erfurt: 5, Erfurt, C. and P.; 6, Nordhausen.

VII. PROVINCE OF WESTPHALIA.

Government of Münster: 1, Münster, Cath.; 2, Burgsteinfurt, Real-School classes at Gymnasium.

Government of Minden: 3, Minden, Real-School classes at Gymnasium.

Government of Arnsberg: 4, Dortmund, Real-School classes at Gymnasium; 5, Lippstadt; 6, Hagen; 7, Siegen.

VIII. PROVINCE OF THE RHINE AND HOHENZOLLERN.

Government of Cologne: 1, Cologne, Real-School, C. and P.; 2, the same, Real-School classes at the Frederic Wilhelm Gymnasium.

Government of Dusseldorf: 3, Dusseldorf, sim.; 4, Duisburg, Real-School classes at Gymnasium; 5, Mülheim; 6, Ruhrort; 7, Elberfeld; 8, Barmen, Real-School classes at Gymnasium.

Government of Aix-la-Chapelle: 9, Aix-la-Chapelle, C. and P.

Government of Treves: 10, Treves, C. and P.

D. REAL-SCHOOLS OF THE SECOND ORDER.

I. PROVINCE OF PRUSSIA.

Government of Königsberg: 1, Wehlau.

Government of Marienwerder: 2, Graudenz.

II. PROVINCE OF BRANDENBURG.

City of Berlin: 1, Frederic Werder Technical School; 2, Luisenstadt Technical School.

Government of Potsdam: 3, Prenzlau, Real-School classes at Gymnasium.

Government of Frankfurt: 4, Cüstrin; 5, Lübben.

III. PROVINCE OF POMERANIA.

Government of Stralsund: 1, Greifswalde, Real-School classes at Gymnasium.

IV. PROVINCE OF WESTPHALIA.

Government of Minden: 1, Bielefeld, Real-School classes at Gymnasium.

V. PROVINCE OF THE RHINE AND HOHENZOLLERN.

Government of Dusseldorf: 1, Essen, C. and P.; 2, Crefeld.

E. HIGHER BURGHER-SCHOOLS.

I. PROVINCE OF PRUSSIA.

Government of Königsberg: 1, Pillau.

Government of Danzig: 2, Jenkau, Pedagogium.

Government of Marienwerder: 3, Culm, sim.; 4, Marienwerder Frederic School.

II. PROVINCE OF BRANDENBURG.

City of Berlin: 1, Stralau, secondary Burgher-School.

Government of Potsdam: 2, Neustadt-Eberswalde.

Government of Frankfurt: 3, Crossen; 4, Spremberg.

III. PROVINCE OF POMERANIA.

Government of Coeslin: 1, Lauenberg; 2, Stolp, Burgher-School joined to Gymnasium.

IV. PROVINCE OF SILESIA.

Government of Oppeln: 1, Kreuzburg; 2, Neustadt in Upper Silesia.

V. PROVINCE OF SAXONY.

Government of Merseburg: 1, Torgau, Real-School classes at Gymnasium; 2, Delitzsch.

Government of Erfurt: 3, Langensalza.

VI. PROVINCE OF WESTPHALIA.

Government of Arnsberg: 1, Luedenscheid.

VII. PROVINCE OF THE RHINE AND HOHENZOLLERN.

Government of Cologne: 1, Mülheim.

Government of Dusseldorf: 2, Crefeld, Cath.; 3, M. Gladbach; 4, Rheindt; 5, Solingen; 6, Lenne.

Government of Coblenz: 7, Neuwie

Government of Aix-la-Chapelle: 8, Eupen; 9, Duren.

Government of Treves: 10, Saarlouis, C. and P.

Hohenzollern: 11, Hechingen, Cath.

II. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN OLDENBURG.

TERRITORY AND POPULATION.

THE GRAND DUCHY OF OLDENBURG embraces 2,417 square miles, with a population in 1861 of 295,242, of whom 191,877 are Lutherans, 72,939 Roman Catholics, and 1,497 Jews, and consists of three separate territories: the two principalities of Lübeck and Birkenfeld, (three hundred miles from Oldenburg,) and the Duchy of Oldenburg. The latter, from its historical development, divides itself into three districts: Zeverland, Munsterland, and the ancient duchy proper of Oldenburg. Thus there are five districts, each of which, besides its elementary schools, has one higher school, an institution of the State.

I. ELEMENTARY OR PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.

On the basis of Art. 82-91 of the fundamental laws, the State regulation for public schools was issued in April, 1855, which proved highly beneficial for elementary education. According to this, all matters of education and instruction are under the care of a "supreme school board," (Protestant,) which has its seat in Oldenburg, and another for Catholic schools in Vechta, both belonging to the Department of the Interior. Of the five members of each board, one at least must be from the clergy, and one from the teachers' profession. Each school commune has a special school committee, consisting of the head of the respective municipal authority, the pastor, the head teacher, and two members of the commune. The school committees of each district report to the district inspector, whose duty it is to visit each school at least once in three years; he reports to the "supreme school board," which must make regular official visitation of schools by one of its members.

Children are required by law to attend school from their sixth to their fourteenth year. When the number of children in one school rises beyond one hundred, a second class is formed; if beyond two hundred pupils a third class, etc. In schools of more than two classes the sexes may be separated and a female teacher be engaged for the class of girls; this separation has been introduced but rarely.

If children absent themselves from school, a fine of one and a quarter groschen must be paid into the school fund; parents not able to pay the fine are sometimes sent to prison. At the age of ten to fourteen years, children are dispensed from attendance at school during the Summer in rural districts.

A. SCHOOL OF ONE CLASS, UNGRADED.

SCHOOL HOURS.	Monday and Thursday.	Tuesday and Friday.	Wednesday and Saturday.
1.	I. Religious history. II. Exercises in writing. III. Writing.	I. Religious instruction. II. Exercises in writing. III. Writing.	I. Reading the Bible. II. Drawing. III. Drawing.
2.	I. Exercises in writing. II. Religious history, $\frac{1}{2}$. III. Reading and writing, $\frac{1}{2}$.	I. Exercises in writing. II. Biblical history, $\frac{1}{2}$. III. Reading and writing, $\frac{1}{2}$.	I. Exercises in composition. II. Expression of thought, $\frac{1}{2}$. III. Reading and writing, $\frac{1}{2}$.
3.	I. Arithmetic. II. Arithmetic. III. Arithmetic.	I. Arithmetic. II. Arithmetic. III. Arithmetic.	I. Arithmetic, Wednesday. II. Singing, Saturday.
4.	I. Reading and grammar. II. Written exercises. III. Written exercises.	I. Geography. II. Exercises in composition and writing. III. Composition and writing.	Female needlework, etc.
5.	I. Drawing. II. Expression of thought, $\frac{1}{2}$. III. Reading and writing, $\frac{1}{2}$.	I. Exercises in composition. II. Recitation of.	Female needlework, etc.
6.	I. Exercises in writing. II. Reading; grammar. III. Exercises in writing.	I. Gymnastics. II. Gymnastics. III. Gymnastics.	Female needlework, etc.

B. SCHOOL OF TWO CLASSES.

HOURS	LOWER CLASS. I. 6 to 8 years. II. 8 to 10 years.			UPPER CLASS. 10 to 14 years.		
	Monday and Thursday.	Tuesday and Friday.	Wednesday and Sunday.	Monday and Thursday.	Tuesday and Friday.	Wednesday and Saturday.
1.	I. $\frac{1}{2}$ Bibl. history, $\frac{1}{2}$ Monday. II. Recitation of songs, etc., $\frac{1}{2}$ Thursday.	I. Composition. II. $\frac{1}{2}$ Bibl. history, $\frac{1}{2}$ Reading.	I. $\frac{1}{2}$ Bibl. history. II. $\frac{1}{2}$ Reading.	Bibl. history.	Religion.	Reading the Bible.
2.	I. $\frac{1}{2}$ Arithmetic. II. $\frac{1}{2}$ Arithmetic.	I. $\frac{1}{2}$ Arithmetic. II. $\frac{1}{2}$ Arithmetic.	I. Composition, 1-2, Arithmetic. II. $\frac{1}{2}$ Reading and writing.	Arithmetic.	Arithmetic.	Grammatical exercises.
3.	I. Exercises in writing, $\frac{1}{2}$. II. Expression of thoughts, $\frac{1}{2}$. III. Reading and writing, $\frac{1}{2}$.	I. Reading. II. Composition.	I. Singing, Wednesday. II. Recitation of Biblical passages, songs, etc., Saturday.	Reading and grammar.	Reading and grammar.	Writing, Wednesday. Singing, Saturday.
4.	I. Reading. II. Exercises in composition.	I. $\frac{1}{2}$ 1-2, Expression of thoughts, 1-2, Mental arithmetic. II. $\frac{1}{2}$ Reading.	Female needlework, etc.	Geography.	Geography.	Female needlework, etc.
5.	I. Writing. II. Exercises in composition.	I. Writing. II. Composition.	Female needlework, etc.	Drawing.	Penmanship.	Female needlework, etc.
6.	I. $\frac{1}{2}$ 1-2, Expression of thoughts, $\frac{1}{2}$ Drawing. II. $\frac{1}{2}$ Drawing, $\frac{1}{2}$ Reading.	I. $\frac{1}{2}$ Gymnastics. II. $\frac{1}{2}$ Gymnastics.	Female needlework, etc.	Reading and Composition.	Gymnastics.	Female needlework, etc.

According to "principles of a plan of instruction for evangelical elementary schools" the object of the public schools is: "to train children for their earthly and heavenly vocation;" and the plan of lessons includes: (a.) Religion—history of divine dispensation Old and New Testament; doctrines of faith and morals, (small Lutheran catechism;) and committing to memory passages of the Bible. (b.) Reading. (c.) Writing. (d.) German language; fluent expression of thoughts; elements of grammar. (e.) Arithmetic—the four fundamental operations; principles of forms and surfaces. (f.) Singing—church hymns; national songs, duets. (g.) Geography—national; Germany; general. (h.) Drawing—linear. (i.) Gymnastics. (k.) Female needlework, etc.

The salaries of teachers, if not amounting to a fixed sum from the fees of tuition, are completed by the State: (1.) For a regular teacher, from one hundred and seventy-five to two hundred thalers; (2.) for an assistant teacher, from one hundred and fifteen to one hundred and twenty-five thalers; (3.) for an acting assistant teacher, ninety-five to one hundred and five thalers. In addition, teachers have a free residence, garden, land, etc., and when incapable for duty on account of age they receive pensions, proportionate to their years of service, of from forty to sixty, and in rare cases to eighty or ninety per cent. of the salary.

The elementary schools have annual vacations of eight to nine weeks; the higher schools ten to eleven weeks.

Middle Schools.—Elementary schools, by introducing into their plan other branches of instruction, obtain the rank of middle schools, as those of the cities of Oldenburg and Eutin. Foreign languages are not in their programme. The regular teachers receive a salary of 700 to 900 thalers, and rent of home and garden of at least two acres; assistants from 300 to 700 thalers.

Higher Burgher Schools.—The city of Oldenburg, beside the elementary and middle schools, has a higher burgher school of six classes; the programme of studies begins in second class with French, four lessons per week; in fifth class, English four lessons; in fourth class, mathematics four lessons; in third class natural sciences two lessons; in third class, chemistry two lessons per week. From 170 to 180 pupils frequent this school; the fee for tuition is twelve and twenty thalers. The rector receives a salary of 1,100 thalers exclusive of free residence; regular professors from 660 to 900 thalers; ordinary teachers from 350 to 650 thalers. There are higher burgher schools of three classes in Schwartau and Idas, attended by boys and girls.

Candidates for teacherships at the higher schools must submit to an examination by the school board at Oldenburg.

Private Schools.—Every one who proves his qualification is permitted to establish private schools. There are higher schools for girls, all private institutions, in Oldenburg, (thirteen,) Eutin, and other places; in which both the French and English languages are taught.

Infant Schools.—The cities of Oldenburg and Eutin have also nur-

serous schools for children from two to six years, which are chiefly maintained by associations of ladies.

The *Orphan House* in Varel is the only one of its kind in Oldenburg, and was founded by a charitable endowment in the seventeenth century.

An institute for the deaf and dumb (in Wildeshausen) has recently been discontinued.

II. SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

For the ancient duchy and for Munsterland there are two complete gymnasiums, in Oldenburg and Vechta; for Zeverland and Lübeck, two so-called real gymnasiums, viz., at Zever and Eutin; the higher school at Birkenfeld is a pro-gymnasium and higher burgher school combined, with three classes, and gymnasial and real divisions, the first with twenty to twenty-five scholars, the latter with forty to fifty scholars. Pupils are admitted into the gymnasium of Oldenburg at the age of nine years, after they have attended for three years a preparatory school of three classes, attached to both the gymnasium and higher burgher school. The course in the lower classes (sixth and fifth) is of one year, and the four upper classes of three years each. In the sixth class Latin is begun, six lessons per week; in the fourth class they commence the study of French, three lessons per week, and mathematics two lessons per week; in the third class Greek four lessons, natural science two lessons per week; in the second class Hebrew and English each two lessons per week. The number of pupils is about one hundred and eighty; fees of tuition from twenty to thirty thalers.

In Vechta there are fifty to sixty pupils. In Zever the pupils of the gymnasium and the real school are still united in the lower classes, all learning Latin, eight hours per week. In third and second class they are in part separated; the pupils of the real school do not study Greek, and but little Latin, instead of which the modern languages, mathematics and chemistry are pursued.

Admittance to any clerical or administrative position in public office and of forestry is accorded to young men who have obtained a certificate of qualification for the first class of any of the four gymnasiums, or of final examination of the higher burgher school of Oldenburg. All other superior officers of the State or church, physicians, lawyers, etc., must obtain a certificate of maturity for the university, and have completed their professional academical course at any German or foreign university.

The following table shows the salaries, etc., of these schools:

	Rector.	Associate Rector.	Teachers.	Assist- ant teach- ers.	Adminis- trative ex- penditure.	Subsidy of the State.
Oldenburg,.....	1,000-1,500 th.	800-1,100 th.	3 with 600-1,000 th. 4 " 400-700 "	600	1,630	3,100
Vechta,.....	900-1,300 "	700-1,000 "	3 " 500-900 " 2 " 400-600 "	400	460	5,100
Zever,.....	1,000-1,400 "	700-1,100 "	3 " 600-1,000 " 3 " 400-600 "	400	550	6,100
Eutin,.....	1,000-1,400 "	700-1,100 "	3 " 600-1,000 " 3 " 400-600 "	600	7	5,350
Birkenfeld,.....	800-1,400 "	None.	2 " 400-600 " 2 " 350-500 "	300	400	2,400

PROFESSIONAL AND SPECIAL SCHOOLS.

Among the special schools, which are wholly or in part supported by the State, are: the agricultural school of Menenburg, the trade or technical school in Oldenburg, the navigation school in Elsfleth, and two teachers' seminaries.

The Agricultural School was established in May, 1862, by private enterprise, aided by the government. The number of scholars in the first year increased from fourteen to forty-four. Tuition is one hundred and fifty-seven thalers annually.

The Trade School (mechanics' school) has for its object the better education of future mechanics; this school is not in a flourishing condition.

The Navigation School was reorganized in 1856; it has two separate classes, each giving a course of instruction of five months. The class for second mates admits young persons of sixteen years of age, who must have tried themselves at sea and possess a good elementary education, so that at the end of the five months of instruction they are able to do service as second mates on board a vessel; the laws of Oldenburg require for this service the age of twenty years and an experience on sea of four years. The class for first mates admits, from the ships, second mates of the above-named qualifications and experience, who can present good certificates in regard to their past service on vessels and pass the examination for admission, before a committee consisting of a lawyer, the teachers of the school, a mathematician, a merchant and two captains of ships. The number of scholars is generally about thirty; fees of tuition three thalers per month. Teachers' salary: for the rector from six hundred to nine hundred thalers; for each of two teachers one hundred and twenty to six hundred thalers, with a free residence.

These three institutions are under supervision of the government, which appoints a committee of inspection of three members for the agricultural school, and another for the two remaining schools.

Teachers' Seminaries.—The evangelical seminary of Oldenburg numbers above sixty pupils, who all reside in the new building erected in 1846, where instruction and accommodation are given them gratuitously, while they pay to the steward four groschen per day for their dinner.

The seminary is divided into three classes, each having a course of instruction of one year. Conditions for admittance are: age of fifteen years—examination in the branches of public school education, singing and music. The pupils remain for two years in the seminary, when they are sent away for one year as assistant teachers to elementary schools, to acquire a practical experience in teaching; after this time they return to the seminary to attend the instructions of the first class, and at the end of this term a final examination decides on their ability and qualification as teachers. The practical part of this examination consists of trial lessons and catechizing in the practice school; the theoretical part, of oral questioning and written exercises; examination is also made into their ability to sing, and play the violin, piano, and organ.

The following subjects for composition given to candidates at the examination in 1863 will show to some extent what is required:

(1.) Religion. What means "Redemption?" Why do all men need it? In how far does it originate in the attributes of God?

(2.) Composition. A journey to the Hartz—or for those who had not participated in the summer excursion: Comparison between the rivers Marsch and Geest.

(3.) Mathematics: (a.) To find the contents of a rectangular triangle, the length of the hypotenuse and angles being given. (b.) Change a given triangle into a square.

(4.) Arithmetic: Problem on average computations. The oral examination, among other things, extended on: (a.) Biblical history—the contents of the Book of Joshua, the journeys of St. Paul. (b.) In Geography—evidences of the spherical form of the earth. (c.) History—the Reformation. (d.) Botany—the family of grasses, etc.

The expenditures of the Seminary amount to 8,500 thalers per year, towards which the State contributes 6,100 thalers, and the balance is made up from the interests of the dotation fund of 48,000 thalers. The salary of the director is from 1,000 to 1,500 thalers, of the inspector 600 to 800 thalers, exclusive of free house, light and fuel; two teachers receive each from 500 to 700 thalers, and assistant teachers from 500 to 900 thalers. Expenses for administration and other matters amount to from 3,500 to 4,000 thalers, inclusive of subsidies paid to poor students.

The Catholic teachers receive their preparatory education at the Normal School of Vechta (connected with the gymnasium.) In 1860 a separate Seminary with two classes and two regular teachers, a director and assistant, was established. Pupils attend a course of two years at this Seminary, before they enter upon their practical duties. Efforts are made to extend the course of study to three years.

The director has a salary of 700 thalers, besides a house and garden; each teacher has 500 thalers; and the assistant, 115 thalers. Expense for administration is 235 thalers, and amount of subsidies 150 thalers.

There are no Seminaries in the other principalities, and candidates are at liberty to visit the Seminary at Oldenburg, or any other in Germany. In cases of poverty, the State gives subsidies to poor students who attend even foreign Seminaries, for which in Lübeck 560 thalers, and in Birkenfeld 1,000 thalers per year are regularly appropriated.

The total contributions for school purposes by the Government of Oldenburg amounted in 1863 to 70,400 thalers, (with total expenses of 1,690,000 thalers,) of which two-fifths were for superior schools.

* By the latest development in Germany, Oldenburg has been merged in the "United States of Northern Germany."

III. PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN SWITZERLAND.

INTRODUCTION.

THE Swiss Confederation was founded on the first of January, 1818, by the cantons Uri, Schwyz and Unterwalden. In 1353 it numbered 8 cantons, and in 1513 it was composed of 13 cantons. This old Confederation of 13 cantons was increased by the adherence of several subject territories, and existed till 1798, when it was replaced by the Helvetic Republic, which lasted four years. In 1803, Napoleon I, organized a new Confederation, composed of 19 cantons, by the addition of St. Gall, the Grisons, Argovia, Thurgovia, Tessin and Vaud. This Confederation was modified in 1815, and the number of cantons was increased to 22 by the re-admission of Valais, Neufchâtel and Geneva, which after the revolution in 1848, formed the present Confederation.

CANTON.	Area. Eng. sq. ms.	POPULATION.				No. of Fed. rep- resenta- tives.
		1860.	Pr. sq. mile.	Catholic.	Protestant.	
Zurich,	658.3	267,641	365.8	11,497	254,808	13
Berne,	2,561.5	480,516	178.8	58,572	466,862	23
Lucerne,	587.4	130,965	226.1	128,248	2,697	7
Uri,	420.5	14,970	34.4	14,722	39	1
Schwyz,	338.3	45,193	130.5	44,649	539	2
Unterwald, Upper,	262.8	{ 13,399	95.6	13,304	95	2
“ Lower,			11,561	11,506	55	
Glaris,	279.8	33,458	107.9	5,866	27,563	2
Zug,	85.4	19,667	204.4	19,035	632	1
Freybourg,	563.9	105,970	177.1	90,362	15,578	5
Soleure,	254.6	69,527	273.6	59,799	9,626	3
Bâle, Town,	184.6	{ 41,251	420.2	9,996	30,826	5
“ County,			51,773	9,824	41,721	
Schaffhausen,	119.7	35,646	294.9	2,080	33,489	2
Appenzell, Exterior,	152.8	{ 48,604	359.3	2,243	46,359	3
“ Interior,			12,020	11,898	123	
St. Gall,	747.7	181,091	228.2	111,087	69,802	9
Grisons,	2,968.0	91,177	30.2	29,003	52,166	5
Argovia,	502.4	199,600	397.7	88,558	104,385	10
Thurgovia,	268.3	90,347	368.6	22,152	67,861	5
Tessin, (Ticino,)	1,034.7	131,396	113.8	131,241	115	6
Vaud,	1,181.9	213,306	168.8	12,931	199,465	11
Valais,	1,661.6	90,580	50.5	90,169	697	5
Neufchâtel,	290.2	87,847	252.5	9,359	77,476	4
Geneva,	91.3	83,340	702.5	72,365	70,266	4
Total,	15,233.0	2,534,242	157.2	1,040,469	1,483,299	128

The area of Switzerland is 15,233 Engl. square miles, and the population, (1860,) 2,534,242. There are 485,000 heads of families, 465,000

possessors of landed property, and only about 500,000 having no landed possession. Of every 100 square miles of land, 20 are pasture, 17 forest, 11 arable, 20 meadow, 1 vineyard, and 30 uncultivated, being water, rocks and glaciers.

The German element is ruling in 16 out of 22 cantons, especially in the two leading cantons, Zurich and Berne. The French language prevails in Vaud, Geneva, Neufchâtel, Valais and Freyburg, and a part of Berne; the Italian in Ticino and the Grisons, and the Romansh dialect in part of the Grisons. The population speaking the German, is 1,750,000; the French, 550,000; Italian, 130,000; Romansh, 45,000.

The present constitution, the result of the secession movement of 1847-8, bears date September 12, 1848, and by it the government was essentially changed. The supreme legislative and executive authority is vested in a parliament of two chambers: the State Council (Standerath), composed of 44 members, two from each canton; and the National Council (Nationalrath,) of 128 representatives, chosen by direct election, at the rate of one deputy for every 20,000 souls.

In no country is education more widely diffused than in Switzerland, especially in the protestant cantons. The federal government contributes annually 314,000 francs, (\$63,800,) towards the Federal Polytechnic School at Zurich. This institution was erected as a monument of Swiss Union, in 1855, and forms a noble standard of the education in the various cantons, while at the same time it has exercised a great influence in elevating their preparatory schools to a uniform superior character. It possesses a philosophic faculty and 76 teachers. Switzerland has three universities, at Basle, Berne and Zurich; two academies, with theologic, jurisprudential, and philosophic faculties, 49 professors and 370 students, in Geneva and Lausanne; and superior gymnasia in all the chief towns.

Popular education is widely diffused through all the cantons; the attendance of all children over 5 years of age is compulsory. Each canton regulates its school system. In elementary schools, singing and drawing are as much obligatory branches of instruction as reading and writing. This general education shows itself in a great number of clubs for scientific, industrial, musical and social purposes, there being no pursuits to which a class of men can devote themselves, which are not represented by societies in Switzerland. The local political assemblies and other public meetings give ample employment to the newspaper and periodical press; there are accordingly 188 political journals, 167 periodicals devoted to literature and science, and 40 daily papers.

An interesting feature in the school systems of Switzerland is the recognition of the teacher in the constitution of the Cantonal Board of Inspection, and in consulting the regular association of teachers in all matters relating to the internal economy of the school.

Having lately received through the courtesy of the Swiss Consul General at Washington, (John Hitz, Esqr.) the school codes of each canton, we shall submit entire or abstracts of several, as types of the educational systems of the republics of the old world.

SCHOOL CODE OF THE CANTON OF ZURICH.

Revision of 1859.

PART I.—ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION.

I.—CANTONAL OFFICERS. A.—Director and Board of Education.

1.—*Members and their Election.*

SECTION 1. The administration of all matters of education is placed under the Director of Education, one of the members of the Governmental Council.

§ 2. The Board of Education consists of seven members, including the Director. Four of the members are directly appointed by the Governmental Council, and two are elected by the School Synod, subject to the approval of the Governmental Council. One of the latter must be a teacher of the secondary schools, the other a teacher of primary schools.

§ 3. The Director of Education is President of the Board of Education. If he is prevented from presiding over the sessions of the Board of Education, his regular deputy takes his place, and, if he is prevented, the Governmental Council appoints a vice deputy.

§ 4. The term of office of members of the Board of Education is four years. The term of three of the members expires every two years, viz: of two of those appointed by the Governmental Council, and of one elected from the teachers. The term of these three members expires always after the elections for reorganization of the Governmental Council; and the latter elects its members for the Board of Education during the summer season, and approves of those elected by the School Synod during the fall season of the respective year.

§ 5. The laws on the organization of the bureau of the Governmental Council and its branches apply also to the bureau of the Director and Board of Education.

2.—*Duties.*

§ 6. The Board of Education (State Laws, art. 70) is charged "with the superintendence of all schools in the Canton, and the promotion of popular and scientific education." Moreover, it is its duty to exercise a supreme direction of all public schools; to prepare and to propose all laws and regulations on education, and to see that they are faithfully executed.

§ 7. For this purpose the Board of Education has the necessary control over inferior school authorities, and calls an annual meeting of deputies from the District School Committees, for the purpose of deliberating with them on general matters of education. The Directors of Teachers' Seminaries attend also, and the deputies are required to render an account of the proceedings to the bodies who elected them.

§ 8. The Board of Education has power to appoint special inspectors of schools, whenever information respecting them renders it necessary, for which purpose the annual sum of 3,000 francs is placed to their credit.

§ 9. Reserving the privilege of resort to the Governmental Council, the Board of Education has power—

1.—To suspend a teacher, accused of crime, during the trial.

2.—To suspend the functions of a teacher who, by his own fault, has rendered unprofitable his further labors at a school; to appoint a substitute and fix the amount to be paid the latter from the teacher's salary. In case of disagreement on the part of the teacher, the courts decide the amount.

B.—COMMISSIONS OF INSPECTION FOR CANTONAL SCHOOLS.

§ 10. The immediate supervision over the Gymnasium, the School of Industry, the gymnastic and military exercises of the Cantonal School, the Veterinary

School, and the Seminary of Teachers, is exercised by special commissions of inspection.

These commissions are elected by the Board of Education, by secret ballot, from the names proposed by the Director of Education, subject to confirmation by the Governmental Council, which also decides by secret ballot. The approval of the Governmental Council, in case of appointment by the Board of Education of further special commissions for inspection, is reserved.

§ 11. The Director of Education has the privilege of being appointed President of any of their commissions, if he desires. But, unless he express his desire, the Board of Education appoints the President of the commission from its members.

§ 12. If the Director of Education is not a member of these commissions for inspection, another member of the Board of Education must be elected, and the Director has still the privilege of being President at their session. The term and expiration of office is the same as for other standing committees. If the Director of Education is not President of the commissions, a new election for President shall take place every four years, always after the new election of one-half of the members of the commission.

§ 14. The number of members of commissions of inspection, their duties and privileges, will be defined in the regulations of the respective schools.

II.—DISTRICT SCHOOL COMMITTEE.

1.—*Members and their Election.*

§ 15. Every district has a District School Committee, consisting of nine to thirteen members. The Director of Education fixes the number according to the wants of each district. Three members are elected by the teachers of the district, the other members are elected by the school communes of the district from citizens not of the profession of teachers. Teachers, who are members of a District Committee, absent themselves from all deliberations concerning their persons or their schools; but the Committee may consult them in reference to the latter.

§ 16. Members of School Committees are elected for the term of six years; elections to be held every three years.

§ 17. The District School Committee elect a President and Vice President from the members. The President calls a meeting as often as business may require, or on the demand of four of the members.

§ 18. They elect also a Secretary, not necessarily one of the Committee, to keep a record of their proceedings and resolutions.

§ 19. The duties of the School Committee are rendered gratuitous. For every day of visitation three francs are allowed to each member; and if any of them are requested by the Board of Education to inspect buildings, to settle accounts in dispute, etc., they receive six francs per diem.

2.—*Duties of the District School Committee.*

§ 20. The District School Committee has the supervision on all school matters in the district. For this purpose certain schools, to be changed every two years, are apportioned to each member for regular visitation. Secondary schools shall be visited by one member during two years, when he is relieved by another. The schools shall be visited at least twice in each year, during the summer and winter course.

§ 21. The Committee shall particularly inquire into—

- (a) Regular attendance of the scholars.
- (b) Discharge of duty by the teacher.
- (c) Order of instruction.
- (d) Economical and local condition.

The Board of Education will give further instruction on the visitation of schools; the members of the district enter their names and date of visitation in the visitation book of the school.

§ 22. The District Inspector shall be present at the annual examinations of the schools placed under his care. After the examination, he meets the Parochial or Secondary School Committees for consultation on the condition of the school, and renders a report to the District School Committee. After all examinations have

taken place, the District School Committee holds a session on the reports from visitation, and takes suitable action. The Secretary communicates the censures and other resolutions to the Parochial and Secondary School Committees, and sends an extract of the minutes, as far as each teacher is concerned, to the respective schools.

§ 23. All resolutions of Parochial and Secondary School Committees, in regard to selection of building lots and plans of school houses, require the approval of the District Committee; and, if adverse to the desires of the former, they can appeal to the Board of Education as the final resort.

§ 24. The District School Committee shall render an annual account to the Board of Education, after a given schedule, on the condition of schools, number of scholars, absentees, means of instruction, etc., accompanied by such proposals, desires or observations as appear suitable.

Every three years a general report on the condition of all schools of the district, their teachers, means of instruction, buildings, plans of teaching, etc., must be rendered, with a statement of what measures are considered necessary for the promotion of education.

§ 25. Finally, the District School Committee shall see that the laws on schools and the instructions of the Board of Education are properly executed, and hold the Subordinate Committees responsible in this respect. The Committee has also power to place a school under special supervision.

III.—SECONDARY AND PAROCHIAL SCHOOL COMMITTEES.

A.—SECONDARY SCHOOL COMMITTEES.

1.—*Members and their Election.*

§ 26. Each secondary school district has a Committee of from seven to eleven members; the District Committee fixes this number according to the wants of the district, and elects two of the members, and decides how many more shall be elected from each school district. The elections of the latter members are by the school communes.

All elections are by secret ballot. The teachers are advisory members of the School Committee, in all matters not pertaining to themselves personally, but they shall be informed of any resolutions in reference to them.

§ 27. The term of office for members of Secondary School Committees is four years, and the Committee elects by secret vote a President, Vice-President, and Secretary. The President has power to appoint the time of meeting, and, if required, to call an extra session on demand of three members.

§ 28. The Committee appoints a school administrator for the office term of four years, who, if not a member of the Committee, shall be consulted on matters of economy.

2.—*Duties and Powers of the Secondary School Administrator.*

§ 29. The duties and powers of Secondary School Committees are the same as those described in §§ 37 to 41; and those of the School Administrators analogous to §§ 42 to 47.

§ 30. The Secondary School Committee renders an annual report to the District Committee, as described in § 41.

§ 31. The account rendered by the School Administrator shall first be examined by the Secondary School Committee; next a copy shall be transmitted to each Parochial Committee, giving them a time of two weeks to make objections, if any they have; during which time the members of the commune may obtain a view of the account. After the expiration of this time, the Secondary School Committee, having taken notice of the objections made, refers the account to the District Committee for ratification.

B.—PAROCHIAL SCHOOL COMMITTEES.

1.—*Members and their Election.*

§ 32. Each parish has a School Committee consisting of the pastor as President, and a number of members of four at least, to be fixed by the commune. Where

the resident minister has an assistant, the Board of Education may appoint the latter as President of the Parochial School Committee. The Committee elect a Vice-President and Secretary for the term of four years. The teachers are advisory members of the Committee in all matters not pertaining to their persons; however, they shall be informed of all resolutions, etc., in this respect.

§ 33. The school communes of Fluntern, Oberstrass, Unterstrass, Cusserfihl, Wiedikon, Enge, and Leimbach, which belong to the Parish of Zurich, shall have a special committee each, of which the Teacher of Religion shall be President.

§ 34. The members of the Parochial School Committees are elected for the term of four years; the President of the Parochial Commune presides at the election. (Laws, § 19, 1855.)

§ 35. The President assembles the committee whenever occasion requires, or upon the demand of three members. All proceedings must be recorded.

§ 36. For the administration of the school fund, and the collection and disbursement of moneys, an administrator is elected by the School Committee for the term of four years; who shall be consulted on matters of economy by the Committee, if not already a member of the same.

2.—*Duties and Powers of the Parochial Committee.*

§ 37. The Parochial School Committee has the immediate supervision of all schools in the parish, and executes all school laws, resolutions and instructions of the superior authorities. They take all necessary preliminary measures to fill vacant teacherships, and provide for the admittance, attendance, and dismissal of scholars.

§ 38. The Parochial Committee shall see that the teachers faithfully execute all the duties of their office. If a teacher proves incapable or unfit for his vocation, they shall report the circumstances to the District Committee. On the other hand, they shall support the teacher in all laudable efforts, and see that he receive his pay and other perquisites according to his engagement.

§ 39. The Parochial Committee shall assist the teacher in measures of order and discipline of the school. The Board of Education, on the basis of the opinion of District Committees and Chapters, publishes an order of schools for the whole Canton, in which the powers of teachers in the exercise of discipline are defined. The Committee and teachers shall, as much as possible, promote the good deportment of the young, in and out of school, and they have power to take the scholars to account for misdemeanors committed outside of their family.

§ 40. The members of the Committee, alternately as they agree among themselves, shall visit the schools of the commune, to observe the manner of instruction, the causes of absence of scholars, the order in school, and the cleanliness of the children. Each visit they should record in the visitation book of the school, and whatever appears important and noteworthy in their observations, they should communicate to the Committee or its President. They should not make any remarks before the scholars.

§ 41. An annual tabular report, on the condition of each school, and such petitions or propositions as the Parochial Committee think proper, shall be made to the District Committee. Every three years a general report shall be rendered on the condition of schools, means of instruction, buildings, etc., to which shall be added all suggestions for improvement.

3.—*Duties of the School Administrator.*

§ 42. Under supervision of the School Committee, the property of the school communes shall be under the care of an Administrator, who keeps an account of receipts and expenditures, and sees that the buildings, etc., are kept in good state. He is required to give security for the true performance of his duties: and the school commune can grant him a remuneration.

§ 43. The Administrator shall see that the class rooms and school houses are kept clean, and properly heated in winter.

§ 44. He superintends all means of instruction belonging to the schools in common, keeps an inventory of the same, into which all additions must be inscribed.

§ 45. The Administrator shall see that all loans from the school funds are secure; he shall obtain the consent of the Committee before making any invest-

ment; collect the interest and other receipts, and pay all expenses in accordance with law and the resolutions of the School Committee.

§ 46. The moneys shall be used only for school purposes—the regular current expenses are defrayed on authority of the School Committee and the Administrator. No money shall be paid out unless provided by law, or by previous resolutions of the school commune. Purchase or sale of estate shall not take place without the consent of the school commune.

§ 47. The Administrator shall present annually to the School Committee an account, in duplicate, of all receipts and disbursements, which the Committee shall examine and compare with the vouchers, and, if found correct, transmit for ratification to the District Committee.

4.—General Provisions.

§ 48. No person is eligible for any school office, unless he be twenty-five years of age, and possess the qualifications set forth in Art. 24, State Laws: Father and son, two brothers or brothers-in-law, father-in-law and daughter's husband, cannot be at the same time members of a Committee.

§ 49. All members of Committees, and School Administrators, can be re-elected when their term expires. If a temporary election or appointment has been made, the office must be definitely filled at the next regular election, and within one year.

PART II.—SCHOOLS.

L—CANTONAL SCHOOLS. L—Popular Schools.

§ 50. The Popular School has the object to train children of all classes upon uniform principles, into active, religious, useful and moral men.

1.—Elementary Schools.

§ 51. All Public Schools of the Canton of Zurich are divided into eleven districts (Bezirke), agreeing with the political districts of the Canton.

Each School District is subdivided into parochial communes, (Kreise,) and each parochial commune into school communes, according to the number of its schools.

Where exceptionally a school commune extends to two parochial communes, it belongs to the one in which the school house is situated.

§ 52. The separation of a school commune for the establishment of a special school house shall take place only with the consent of the Governmental Council, which shall be granted on special grounds, and the evidence of a possession of sufficient means to fulfil all the obligations of a school commune, and only in case when the want of another school is justified, on account of distance from the first school house, bad roads, or other local circumstances.

§ 53. In order to avoid the disadvantages of schools attended by only a small number of scholars, the Governmental Council shall, whenever it is practicable, unite the smaller school communes of a parochial commune with the larger ones of the same or of a neighboring parish, or take one part of a school commune to be joined to another. In such cases all interests shall be settled on a basis of justice and equity.

2.—Duty of Attending School and Admission.

§ 54. All the children of residents of the Canton, who have attained their sixth year on the 1st of May of each year, shall be obliged to enter the school at the opening of its first course, unless they are dispensed on account of physical or mental infirmity for a longer or shorter time. No children under six years of age shall be admitted.

§ 55. The duty of attending school is obligatory to the time of admission as church members, (confirmation,) generally the sixteenth year of age. Scholars who from the day school enter a secondary school, and frequent the same during the term of two years, are not required to attend repetition schools.

§ 56. Children who do not attend the public school of the commune, but another public school, or who are instructed by private teachers, must be reported by the parents or guardians to the School Committee, which shall obtain satisfac-

tory information that such children receive instruction at least equal to that given in the public schools of the commune. The fees of tuition must be paid for such children into the school treasury, where the parents reside, as long as their obligation in law to attend school exists; however the School Committee, when the interests of the school are favorable to a withdrawal of scholars, may refund the tuition fees.

§ 57. The new annual school course begins with the 1st of May. One week previous to this date, the President of the parochial commune gives a public notice that all children of six years of age shall be admitted into school, and that parents are required to present them, together with a certificate of their vaccination.

The pastor of the parish furnishes the teachers with a list of children of the above age, the date of their birth, names of parents, etc.; and if families have been apportioned to another commune, a list of their children are forwarded to the ministers of the other parish.

3.—Classification of Schools

§ 58. The Primary School is divided into two parts:

- (a) The day school, course of six years.
- (b) The repetition school, course of three years.

Moreover, all children leaving the day school at the end of the course, unless they enter a higher school, are required to attend, during one hour per week, the singing school, which is kept on Sunday, or a day of the week, for the purpose of training good church singers. The School Committees shall take measures to secure supervision and attendance for the singing school.

§ 59. The scholars of day schools form six classes, agreeing with the six years' course of instruction. The three lower classes form the elementary, the three upper the real school.

§ 60. If it is necessary to divide a school into two classes, with two or more teachers, the approval of the Board of Education must be obtained. The employment of teachers in different classes shall be regulated by the School Committee, with due regard to the wishes of the teachers in office.

§ 61. If more than one hundred pupils attend a day school, during three years, a second teacher shall be engaged, and a second class room formed. The Board of Education has power, if warranted by special reasons, to order the formation of two classes, when the number of scholars exceeds eighty.

4.—School Hours.

§ 62. The number of school hours per week shall be: For the lower class of a day school, eighteen to twenty; for the next two classes, twenty-one to twenty-four, and for its three upper classes, twenty-four to twenty-seven; for the repetition school, eight hours, distributed on two forenoons, and the singing school one hour per week.

§ 63. The school hours shall be divided by the Parochial School Committee, with the approval of that of the district, and with the advice of the teacher, and the Committee shall have power to augment the number of hours for the repetition school during the winter months, at the expense of the summer months. A teacher shall not be employed in school more than thirty-five hours per week, exclusive of instruction in gymnastics.

§ 64. There shall be eight weeks per year of regular vacation, the distribution of which is left to the School Committees.

5.—Branches and Means of Instruction

§ 65. Branches of instruction in primary schools are—

- Religious and moral instruction.
- German language.
- Arithmatic and geometry.
- Natural history.
- History and geography, chiefly national.
- Singing, penmanship, dancing, gymnastics.
- Female handiwork.

§ 66. The Board of Education prepares a plan of instruction, defining the matter to be taught in each department of the Primary School, and the time to be devoted to it, based on the following principles:

(a) That the day school must have, as its chief aim, to give a secure and thorough knowledge of the first elements of science; the lower classes a general understanding of the different branches, and the upper classes a more extended instruction, with a view to develop the capacity of the mind for duty.

(b) That the repetition school must connect the want of practical life with the general object of instruction.

§ 67. In accordance with the general plan of instruction, a time table shall be prepared by the School Committee, under advice of the teacher, and submitted for approval to the District Committee, in which the order of each day and hour shall be furnished for teachers and scholars.

§ 68. Method and manner of instruction shall be appropriate to the age and knowledge of the scholar, so as to promote his safe progress, and particularly a uniform development of all his powers.

a.—Instruction in Religion.

§ 69. Plan and books for instruction in religion, as well as in other branches, are prescribed by the Board of Education, but shall be submitted to the opinion of the Church Council, which acts on the recommendation of the Church Synod or Chapter. After having obtained their opinion, the Board of Education decides finally on the plan of religious instruction for the day school, while the plan for the repetition school is submitted to the approval of the Church Council. If no agreement can be had on the latter, the Governmental Council makes a final decision.

§ 70. All religious instruction in the repetition school is given by the minister of the church. If a parish has many schools, some of them may combine into one repetition school, or, if not practicable, the teacher shall instruct part of them; all exceptional measures must be approved by the District Committee, and the school hours shall not be shortened.

§ 71. Special arrangements shall be made for the schools of the Roman Catholic Churches in the Canton.

b.—Female Handiwork.

§ 72. In every parochial commune at least one class for female work shall be established. The School Committee shall provide a well lighted and airy room for this purpose, either in the school house or elsewhere.

§ 73. The instruction in this branch shall include: Knitting, sewing, repair of clothes, and cutting, etc., of new clothes. Strict attention must be given to order, neatness and economy. The scholars of the real school shall as yet not be taught ornamental work.

§ 74. All the young girls of the real school are required to attend the work classes; those of the repetition and secondary school have the privilege of attending.

§ 75. The School Committees shall request the ladies of their commune to organize themselves into work associations, for the support of the work classes, and these associations shall elect the teacher, and approve of all matters pertaining to this department.

§ 76. The immediate care of these schools, their supervision, the election of a teacher, her salary and term of office, the collection of fees of instruction, fixing of school hours, etc., rests upon the School Committee. However, the Board of Education, with consent of the Governmental Council, may issue regulations for the work schools.

§ 77. The expenses of the latter, as far as not covered by voluntary contributions, shall be defrayed from the school treasury. Where several schools have a work class in common, the expenses shall be apportioned according to the number of scholars from each.

c.—Means of Instruction.

§ 78. Means of instruction are selected by the Board of Education, (see § 69,) according to a plan including the various schools and branches of instruction. As much as possible all books of instruction are printed by the Government in order to reduce the price.

B.—EXAMINATIONS.

6.—*Examinations, Promotions, and Final Certificate.*

§ 79. Every year, at the end of the scholastic course, a public examination shall take place in all popular schools, in presence of at least two members of the School Committee. The day of examination for each school shall be appointed by the School Committee, with the approval of the district school inspector; and a public invitation shall be extended in the usual manner. The Parochial School Committee may decide whether the singing schools shall be present. The examination shall be extended to all branches of the plan of instruction, including religion, and must occupy at least three hours for an undivided day school.

§ 80. At the end of the course of instruction, the School Committee, upon motion of the teacher, decide on the promotions from the elementary to the real school, and from the latter to the repetition school; they have power to retain a scholar in the class last occupied. The promotion within the class is left with the teacher.

Final certificates are issued for the scholars upon the completion of the course of the day school, and children, passing to another school commune, are admitted in the same class as the one from which they came.

7.—*Absence from School and Obstacles to Regular Attendance.*

§ 81. All educational officers and teachers shall take measures to secure the regular attendance of scholars at school. Special regulations by the Board of Education shall indicate the necessary measures.

§ 82. Parents, guardians, and employers, disregarding the duties toward the young, in regard to their instruction, shall be exhorted, or fined, according to the "regulations for absence from school."

§ 83. The School Committees shall see that all laws and regulations with regard to children employed in factories are duly observed, and that the children are not overloaded with work or otherwise neglected; and, in case of violation, they shall proceed according to § 257, private rights.

8.—*School Houses.*

§ 84. Each school commune must have a school house; in extraordinary cases the Board of Education may grant a delay, and no part of a school house shall be used for other purposes than teaching without the consent of the District Committee.

§ 85. A residence for the teacher shall be connected with each school house, and the communes are obliged, when there is no such accommodation for the teacher, to provide a temporary residence, or pay a suitable remuneration, with the approval of the District Committee. If they cannot agree in the matter, the Board of Education makes the final decision.

9.—*Economical Condition.*

A.—CONTRIBUTIONS FROM PARENTS.

§ 86. Parents or guardians of children required to attend school, shall pay for their tuition, as per § 301, into the hands of the school Administrator. The tuition of the poor is paid from the poor fund.

§ 87. Books of instruction and writing material for the scholars are purchased by the School Committee, at the expense of the parents, at reduced prices, and with a view to uniformity. The children of the poor are furnished with them at the expense of the poor fund.

§ 88. The School Committees have power to increase the fees of tuition to double the amount, if necessary, to meet the current expenses; also to decrease the same, or the charges for books and materials, if warranted by the condition of the treasury.

B.—CONTRIBUTIONS FROM THE SCHOOL COMMUNES.

1.—*Kind of Contributions.*

§ 89. The building and maintenance of school houses (§ 84) is a duty of the school commune, unless by legal provision otherwise provided for.

§ 90. Every School Committee shall provide the necessary fuel for the class rooms, as well as

§ 91. Seats, desks, blackboards, and all apparatus required for the cleaning and heating of schools, etc.

§ 92. The School Committee shall see that teachers receive their salary and other emoluments, according to the contracts they have concluded with them.

2.—*Sources of Contributions.*

a.—*School Fund.*

§ 93. Every school commune shall have a separate school fund, consisting of—
1. All donations and foundations belonging to the commune already.

2. The fees of settlement from every non-resident citizen, and from any marriage with a party from another commune.

3. All voluntary donations and bequests.

§ 94. The School Committee shall have power to call for an annual voluntary school tax, which shall flow into the school fund, or be employed to pay tuition and books for the children of the poor, or to form a special fund for the poor.

§ 95. The School Committee shall take proper care to increase the school fund, and bring it into such condition that the current expenses may be paid from the interest.

b.—*Annual Income for Schools.*

§ 96. The following amounts flow into the school treasury :

1. The interest of the school fund.

2. Rents, etc., of estate belonging to the commune.

3. Part of the fees of settlement.

4. Fees of tuition and fines.

5. Contributions of the State not for special purposes.

c.—*Contribution of the State.*

§ 97. The State undertakes to provide for the education of teachers, their salaries, pensions, etc., as specified hereafter.

The Governmental Council may grant aid towards the building or repair of school houses, proportionate to the expenses arising and the means of the commune.

§ 98. There shall be a credit of 35,000 francs for the Governmental Council, for extraordinary expenses, for educational purposes in the school communes, or for the increase of their school funds.

II.—*SECONDARY SCHOOLS.*

THEIR OBJECT.

§ 99. Secondary schools have been established for boys and girls, embracing a higher course of instruction than the day school. The object of secondary schools is to confirm the instruction of primary schools, to enlarge the same within the sphere of popular schools, and to enable some of their pupils to be admitted in a superior school.

1.—*School Circles and Location of School.*

§ 100. The canton shall be divided into secondary school circles, as near as possible analogous to other divisions, not above the number of sixty. The Governmental Council has power to unite or divide school circles, if necessary.

§ 101. In each circle shall be a secondary school, which, under obligation to fulfil the requirements of law, shall be entitled to the fixed contribution of the State, (§ 121.)

§ 102. The establishment of a new secondary school shall be permitted when the attendance of fifteen pupils at least for three years has been secured, and the requisite localities have been provided, as well as the pecuniary means to secure the existence of the school. The evidence thereof shall be submitted to the Board of Education through the District Committee, and the former may consent to the opening of a new school.

§ 103. If, during several years, the number of scholars of a secondary school has decreased to eight, such school may be dissolved by the Governmental Council. In such case the teacher, unless other employment in the service of schools is provided, shall receive an annual pay for the term of six years, or a total sum by way of settlement; and for the payment of such the school fund shall be taxed, if necessary. Upon the dissolution of a school, the Board of Education makes a definite disposition of the school fund, etc., or temporary only, if a reorganization seems probable; in which latter case the contributions from the State would still increase the fund.

§ 104. The town where the school house is to be situated generally provides the necessary localities for instruction, and also the cleaning and heating thereof. Where the localities are not furnished by the town, the corporation shall be taxed in lieu, and any disputes shall be settled by the District School Committee. The duties imposed by § 305 shall be at the expense of the secondary school circle. However, the town may be required to provide a residence and garden, or farming land for the teacher.

§ 105. The commune which will undertake the conditions of the preceding § shall be the school town, yet the Board of Education has power to protest against the establishment of a secondary school at an unsuitable place, and to decide, if application is made by several communes. If no offer is made by any of the communes, the Board of Education, on proposition of the District Committee, selects the locality, and fixes the amounts to be contributed by the several communes interested in the erection of a secondary school.

2.—*Organism of the School.*

§ 106. Branches of instruction to secondary schools:

Religious and moral instruction, the French and German languages, arithmetic, practical geometry, geography, general and national history, natural science in regard to trades and agriculture, singing, drawing, penmanship, gymnastic and military exercises.

All branches are obligatory, and the Committee shall give dispensation from one or the other in exceptional cases only.

§ 107. Instruction in other ancient or modern languages may be given with the approval of the Board of Education, who also revises the plan of instruction.

§ 108. No teacher shall be obliged to labor in school for more than thirty-three hours per week, (exclusive of teaching gymnastics.) Vacations as §§ 64 and 299.

§ 109. The full course of instruction is generally of three years; however the course of each year shall be complete in itself, as near as possible, within proper limits. The District School Committee may order a fourth annual course on application of the Secondary School Committee.

The Board of Education gives directions on the distribution and limits of the different branches of science in the different annual courses of instruction, and prepares the general plan of teaching, indicating also the obligatory text books, etc. The Secondary School Committee, in conference with the teacher, and with the approval of the District Committees, prepare the time table for their schools.

§ 110. Religious and moral instruction is generally given by a member of the ministry, who is elected by the School Committee, and receives a remuneration for his labor in the secondary school. As an exception, teachers are entrusted with religious instruction, with the consent of the District Committee. See § 69.

§ 111. Girls frequenting the secondary school may participate in the instruction of the work class, paying the usual fee of tuition. Care should be taken that they are absent from lessons only which belong less to the sphere of female education, as geometry, etc.

§ 112. At the end of the annual course a day of public examination shall be appointed by the School Committee, with the approval of the district visitator, (Inspector,) to which parents and others shall be invited. After this examination the Committee decide as to promotion of scholars to higher classes.

§ 113. The Secondary School Committees and teachers shall exercise order and discipline in accordance with the regulations, and punish all absence from school. If a scholar is absent four weeks within the year, or shows a continual

neglect of studies, or gives a bad example of behavior, he shall be dismissed the school by the Committee.

§ 114. The Committee may intrust certain branches of instruction to expert teachers; also, with the approval of the Board of Education, appoint an assistant or second teacher, if the number of pupils exceeds fifty. The distribution of lessons among teachers and assistants is done by the School Committee, with the assent of the Board of Education.

3.—Admission and Withdrawal.

§ 115. Every child residing within the limits of the school, and which has passed the day school, having acquired the requisite knowledge, shall be admitted into the secondary schools. Non-residents must obtain the consent of the School Committee.

§ 116. Scholars who have registered for admission in the secondary school enter the same at the commencement of the annual course. After a trial of one week, the teacher recommends either his definite admission or that he be returned to the School Committee, which may order another examination before deciding finally.

§ 117. The regular admittance is at the beginning of the course on May 1, and an entry into school after that day shall only be permitted exceptionally. However, scholars who remove from one district into another must be received at any time into the same class from which they were dismissed.

§ 118. Regular discharge from the secondary school takes place at the close of an annual course; those who leave school during that period must pay the tuition fees for the last semi-annual term.

4.—Economical Conditions.

§ 119. Each secondary school has a separate school fund, under the special care of the School Committee.

§ 120. The treasury of secondary schools is made up from—

- (a) The annual contributions of the State.
- (b) The fees of tuition and fines for absence.
- (c) The interest from the school fund.
- (d) Voluntary contributions from communes or friends of education.
- (e) The taxes of the communes.

Any surplus at the end of a year is added to the fund.

§ 121. The annual contribution of the State to each secondary school circle amounts to 1,050 francs. If a school has several teachers, or an assistant, a proportionate increase is ordered by the Governmental Council.

The highest tuition fee for one scholar is twenty-four francs; from this eight francs are paid to the teacher, while the remainder flows into the school treasury.

§ 122. Children of poor parents, who distinguish themselves by industry and talents, shall be taught at partial or no charge. As a rule, one free scholarship is calculated for every eight scholars. If the condition of a school permits, stipends may be granted in consideration of want of means or distance from school of the scholars.

§ 123. If the proceeds from sources mentioned in § 120, (a) and (d), are not sufficient to meet the expenditure of a school, the deficit shall be made up by a tax imposed on the communes which form the school circle. This tax is divided among the several communes, according to communal law, § 182, art. 2, and by them distributed among their members in the manner of other school taxes. The State, in cases of need, shall aid those communes who are not in a prosperous condition.

III.—SUPERIOR INSTRUCTION.

A.—SCHOOLS. I.—The University.

1.—Object and Organization.

§ 124. The object of the university is to secure a superior scientific and professional education, as well as to promote and extend the entire realm of science.

§ 125. The university consists of four faculties:

1. The three special faculties—

- (a) Theology.
- (b) Political science.
- (c) Medicine.

2. The faculty of general philosophy, subdivided into—

- (a) The section of philosophy, philology, and history.
- (b) The section of mathematics and natural science.

§ 126. The university shall possess the usual academical liberty of teaching and learning, subject to regulations on the general plan of studies by the Board of Education.

§ 127. The course of the university shall take into account the wants of the age and the special demands of Switzerland.

2.—*Academic Teachers.*a.—*Title and Appointment.*

§ 128. The body of academic teachers consists of professors and private docents. The State establishes the necessary regular and extraordinary professorships.

§ 129. As a rule the faculty of theology has five, that of political science five, that of medicine six, and that of philosophy (including the teachers of the polytechnic school) fourteen professorships.

§ 130. The Governmental Council shall have power to appoint regular and extraordinary professors, with or without salary, beyond the normal professorship, to the extent of the credit of the university; also to bestow the rank and privileges of regular professors or extraordinary professors.

§ 131. The Governmental Council, upon proposition of the Board of Education, and the advice of the special faculty or section of a faculty of the university, elects the professors of the high school. Previous to the election of a professor for the faculty of theology, the advice of the Council of the Church shall be requested.

§ 132. Men of scientific education may establish themselves as private docents of each faculty. The special conditions for their admission, privilege, and duties, shall be set forth by special regulations.

b.—*Privileges and Duties of Academic Teachers.*

§ 133. The branches of science and number of lectures for a professor shall be specified by his commission. A regular professor is generally obliged to lecture during ten or twelve hours, and an extraordinary professor four to six hours per week. Moreover, all professors are obliged to attend to the prescribed examinations.

§ 134. Each professor shall deliver a public lecture on a subject of science upon his entry into office.

§ 135. Regular professors of the university shall not occupy simultaneously the following offices:

1. Of a minister of the church.
2. In the Governmental Council, the Supreme Court, the District Court, the bureau of these courts or that of the State Attorney, nor that of State Governor.
3. They shall not engage in the practice of law.

§ 136. The salary of regular professors shall be from twenty-five hundred to four thousand francs; that of extraordinary professors, from one thousand to two thousand francs per year. Moreover, they receive from students the fees for their course of lectures, and for examinations and conferring degrees.

§ 137. The fees paid to private docents generally amount to five francs for each of less than four lessons per week, and if more, to four francs per hour. In special cases, the Board of Education may permit an increase for some lectures.

§ 138. The Board of Education shall have a credit of eight thousand francs on the budget of the State for the payment of eminent professors and private docents without salary, and also for services beyond the measure of their duties. Grants of the Board of Education in this regard shall be confirmed by the Governmental Council.

§ 139. The faculties or sections of a faculty have power to confer the degree of master of arts (doctor) on those who have given evidence of a superior knowledge, or by diploma on persons who are distinguished in science.

3.—*Duties of Students.*

§ 140. Every one applying for registration at the university, shall present a testimonial of good morals.

§ 141. All citizens of the canton shall present also a certificate of maturity.* These certificates are issued by a commission appointed by the Board of Education on the basis of a previous examination; those, however, who present a satisfactory testimonial from the highest class of the gymnasium at Zurich or that of the school of industry, shall not be re-examined. Special regulations prescribe the order of examination for students from other schools in the canton, and persons from other cantons shall be examined if they desire.

§ 142. Every student shall pay a registration fee of twelve francs into the cantonal treasury, and the annual amount of six francs towards the scientific collections of the university, in consideration of which, he shall have free admittance. Students who receive stipends shall not pay these fees. Other persons who attend certain lectures (§ 143,) without being registered as students, may obtain the privilege of visiting the collections of the university upon payment of six francs per year. For the lectures, students not enjoying stipends, shall pay the fixed amounts which are collected by the administration and delivered to the teachers, less a deduction of two per cent.

§ 143. The students of the polytechnic school of Switzerland and other persons shall be permitted to attend special lectures without registering at the university, upon payment of the regular fees; minors, citizens of the canton, shall obtain the permission of the director of education.

§ 144. Upon application of the academical senate, the director of education shall have power to dismiss students of immoral character or bad conduct. The discipline of the university shall be defined by regulations of the Board of Education.

4.—*Organization of University—Teachers.*

§ 145. The professors of each faculty or section of a faculty constitute a board, the president of which is named dean of the faculty, elected by secret ballot for the term of two years, and not immediately re-eligible.

§ 146. The regular professors and deans form the academic senate, presided over by the rector. The rector is elected from the academic senate by secret ballot for a term of two years, and his election must be approved by the Governmental Council; he cannot be re-elected immediately at the end of his term of office. The rector, as far as his perquisites do not yield six hundred francs, shall receive the deficiency from the State treasury.

§ 147. The rector, past rector, and the five deans form the senate committee, by whom the ordinary business is transacted.

§ 148. In case of absence of the rector, the past rector or the deans, in the order of the faculties, fill his place.

§ 149. The academic senate exercises a supervision over the students, and all proposals to the Board of Education in matters relating to the university proceed from it. The Board of Education cannot finally decide on the use of the revenues, nor on the standing order of instruction and discipline, without advice of the academic senate. The latter may give opinions in writing, or select two deputies to be present as advisory members in the sessions of the Board of Education.

§ 150. The order of administration for the academic senate, the duties and powers of the rectors and senate committee, are defined by special regulations.

§ 151. The Board of Education appoints a special committee from its members for initiatory consultation on all important questions in regard to the university, and also for the purpose of immediate supervision, consisting of the directors of education and two members. They advise with the rector, and in matters belonging to a special faculty with the deans of the same.

§ 152. A special credit on the budget is opened for the Board of Education, towards defraying the expenses of the university.

* *Norm.*—Certificate of maturity: a testimonial in regard to the final examination of the gymnasium, called maturity; examination, qualifying students as "mature" for the university.

5.—*Organization of the Courses of Instruction.*

§ 153. Semi-annual courses are established for the several faculties; their commencement in the fall or the spring is fixed by the director of education with regard to the beginning of the course at the polytechnic school of Switzerland.

§ 154. The Board of Education decrees the order of lectures to the faculties, in order to secure a suitable continuance in the succession of studies to the students entering at the beginning of the fall term. The faculties shall announce the lectures as called for by the instructions from the Board of Education.

§ 155. Eight weeks before the close of a semi-annual course, each faculty holds a session, admitting also the private docents, to deliberate on the most practical distribution of the lectures prescribed for the next term, (as far as not already determined by the contract of engagement or commission of the teachers,) and on the announcement of lectures left to the choice of each.

§ 156. A list of the lectures is transmitted by the faculties to the rector, who forwards the same, with his report, for approval to the director of education, (§§ 133, 153 to 155,) and provides for publication of a catalogue of lectures in the German language.

§ 157. The Board of Education determines on the beginning and close of vacations, in accord with those of the polytechnic school and with the approval of the Governmental Council, by such regulations as will best promote the object of the school and the comfort of teachers and students.

6.—*Auxiliary Institutes for the Promotion of Learning.*

§ 158. The Governmental Council provides for the establishment of clinic hospitals, (hospital and ambulatory,) upon proposal of the Board of Education and the advice of the medicinal counsellor, and appoints the number and position of all assistants required for the different branches of medical and natural science.

§ 159. The Governmental Council, upon recommendation of the Board of Education, shall have power to grant pecuniary aid to scientific institutions and arrangements which serve to train students in a superior professional degree.

§ 160. On the 29th of April of each year, the anniversary of the foundation of the university, the rector shall inform the students of the prize-questions, selected by two faculties alternately. The chief prize shall be two hundred francs in each faculty, the others sixty francs. Two years after giving notice of the questions, the distribution of the prizes in a solemn manner shall take place. The Board of Education will issue special regulations in regard to this prize institute.

§ 161. All means which serve to incite students to continued activity in their studies, shall be promoted.

§ 162. The amount for institutes described in §§ 158 to 161, shall not exceed ten thousand francs.

§ 163. An annual credit of fifteen hundred francs shall be set apart to aid the students in their expenses for the renting of halls for gymnastics, fencing, and singing.

7.—*Peculiar Economical Conditions of the University.*

§ 164. All donations and endowments by private persons or corporations for the benefit of the university, shall be specially administered under the name of "university fund."

The use of this fund, as far as not specified by the donator, shall be decided on the recommendation of the academic senate, and with the approval of the Governmental Council, by the director of education.

II.—THE CANTONAL SCHOOL.

§ 165. The popular schools are immediately joined to the cantonal school. The latter is divided into the gymnasium and the school of industry.

a.—*The Gymnasium.*

§ 166. The object of the gymnasium is, to lay a foundation for superior education, particularly to prepare for the university by means of the study of ancient classics.

The gymnasium has two divisions, the lower and the upper gymnasium, the first embracing a course of four years, the latter a course of two years and six months.

1.—*The Lower Gymnasium.*

§ 168.—At the lower gymnasium the following branches shall be taught : Religion, the German, Latin, Greek, French languages, general and national history, geography, natural history, mathematics, including practical arithmetic, drawing, penmanship, gymnastics, fencing, (military drill.)

§ 169. The annual fee for tuition in the lower gymnasium is thirty francs.

2.—*The Upper Gymnasium.*

§ 169. Instruction is given in these branches : Religion, the German, Latin, Greek, Hebrew, French languages, general and national history, mathematics, natural science, natural philosophy, singing, gymnastic and military exercises.

§ 170. Pupils of the upper school of industry are permitted to attend certain lessons at the gymnasium, under rules prescribed by the regulations, if they give evidence of the knowledge necessary to proceed with the class.

§ 171. Those pupils only who have passed the course of the upper gymnasium shall be admitted to the maturity examination, and respectively qualified for direct admittance to the university.

§ 172. The fee of tuition for pupils of the upper gymnasium is twenty-four francs per year.

3.—*General Regulations for the Gymnasium.*

§ 173. All branches of instruction are obligatory for the pupils, and the Board of Education shall grant exception in special cases only, not in conflict with the general plan of the gymnasium, or on account of ill health, etc., of the scholar.

§ 174. The Board of Education prescribes the order and extent of the different branches for the several classes.

B.—THE SCHOOL OF INDUSTRY.

§ 175. The school of industry has the object of training youth for the commercial or technical vocations, and to enable them either to enter directly into professional pursuits or to acquire the qualification for admittance into superior technical or mercantile institutions. It has two divisions :

1.—*The Lower School of Industry.*

§ 176. Branches for the lower school of industry :

Religion, the German and French languages, general and national history, geography, natural history and philosophy, mathematics and practical arithmetic, geometric design, drawing, penmanship, singing, gymnastic and military exercises.

The Board of Education may introduce other branches, with the consent of the Governmental Council.

§ 177. The lower school of industry divides itself into three classes, each of one year's course of instruction. A general plan of instruction defines the classification and extent of each branch.

§ 178. Scholars shall attend all lessons and branches, with the exceptions as

§ 173.

§ 179. Fees of instruction for the lower school of industry amount to thirty francs per year.

2.—*The Upper School of Industry.*

§ 180. The upper school of industry teaches the following branches :

Religion, the German, French, English, Italian languages, general and national history, geography, theoretical applied mathematics, applied mechanics, geometrical and technical design, natural history and philosophy, chemistry and applied chemistry, mercantile branches, free drawing, penmanship, singing, gymnastic and military exercises.

The Board of Education, with approval of the Governmental Council, may introduce other branches, if the object of the school is promoted thereby.

§ 181. The upper school of industry has three courses of teaching, the first two of one year each, the third a semi-annual course; however, the Governmental Council can extend the latter to one year. Scholars, after entering the school, are required to study according to a plan of lessons, prepared by the rector with regard to their future vocation, but they are not required to study all the branches embraced in the plan of the school.

§ 182. If these scholars have, in following the plan of their studies, any leisure hours, they shall occupy themselves during the same in the class-room, under supervision of a teacher. The expenses resulting from this supervision shall be defrayed from an extra credit of 1,200 francs per year.

§ 183. Scholars of other higher schools, and other auditors, can take part in the lessons of the upper school of industry, under the restrictions prescribed by special regulations, and shall be held equal to the scholars in discipline and instruction.

§ 184. The fee of tuition for this school is thirty francs per year; auditors pay five francs, semi-annually, for each lesson per week. Scholars and auditors attending the lessons in the chemical laboratory must pay an extra contribution of thirty francs towards the special expenses connected with the experiments.

C.—GENERAL REGULATIONS FOR THE CANTONAL SCHOOL.

1.—Organism of the School.

§ 185. The annual course of the cantonal school commences in the middle of April of each year. The close of the final course should be at a period when the scholars passing to the university, or the polytechnic school of Switzerland, may be admitted by the latter. The established vacations shall be of ten weeks, and the Board of Education divide them for the several seasons of the year.

A public examination takes place in each class at the end of the scholastic year.

§ 186. If a class is attended, in one or more branches, by more than forty pupils, (including auditors,) a sub-division must generally be made; in the higher classes, this division into sections may take place whenever there are more than twenty-five pupils in a class of language, or still less in a class of surveying or of the chemical laboratory, etc. The Board of Education decides on these points.

§ 187. The pupils of the cantonal schools who attend the classes in religion are excused from attendance at the weekly meetings of catechumen.

§ 188. Exercises in gymnastics and the manual of arms shall take place for the whole cantonal school. The Governmental Council, however, shall have power to suspend this rule for the two lower classes.

§ 189. All means of instruction, etc., are supplied by the cantonal treasury.

2.—Regulations Regarding Scholars.

§ 190. Admittance into the lowest class of the cantonal school shall be granted to children of not below twelve years of age, (§ 54,) and exceptions shall be granted by the Board of Education in special cases only. Moreover, each pupil must bring evidence of character and of the knowledge required.

§ 191. Every scholar shall pay a registration fee of six francs, (unless he has previously been admitted into another cantonal school,) and an annual contribution towards the collections of the school of three francs for the upper and two francs for the lower sections. (§ 142.)

§ 192. Scholars, who leave the school after the annual examinations are entitled to a certificate, (certificate of leave or of maturity); also those who leave during a course with permission of the convention of teachers.

3.—Regulations Regarding Teachers.

§ 193. The salary of teachers of the cantonal school shall be in proportion to the number of lessons per week given by them. Their definite appointment shall be for a minimum of lessons, and they are not entitled to a permanent larger

salary or pension by any temporary increase. All teachers are obliged to give additional lessons (within a minimum limit, expressed in their commission,) for a corresponding increase of salary.

§ 194. A temporary engagement generally precedes the definite appointment; however, a teacher who has been temporarily engaged during fifteen years acquires the privileges of §§ 313 and 314.

§ 195. The salary is from one hundred to one hundred and fifty francs per weekly lesson; for some branches of the higher classes it may reach one hundred and seventy francs, as regulated by the Board of Education.

The salary of military instructors is fixed by regulation.

§ 196. One half of all fees of tuition fall into the cantonal school treasury, the other half is divided among the teachers in proportion to the number of lessons and scholars. The fees paid by auditors are divided among their teachers in proportion to the number of lessons.

§ 197. All regular teachers of the cantonal school have the title of superior teacher, (Oberlehrer,) and teachers of drawing, singing, gymnastics, etc., their appropriate title. The Board of Education has power to bestow the title of "Professor," as a distinction, upon a teacher of the cantonal school.

4.—*Convention and Rectorate.*

§ 198. The teachers of each division of the cantonal school form the convention of the same. The duty of the convention is to deliberate on the general welfare of the school, the requirements of classes of scholars, to make reports and issue certificates, and to promote the progress of science and pedagogy. They also have power of discipline over scholars, and decide, as far as they have power, all cases submitted to them by the rector.

§ 199. Each of the two divisions is presided over by a rector, assisted by a prorector, who is chairman of the convention of the lower division. Rector and prorectors superintend the order and instruction of the school, and report to the inspectors; they call and preside at the meetings of the teachers' convention, control the pupils, give necessary information to parents or guardians, and execute the resolutions of their superior authorities.

§ 200. Rectors and prorectors receive extra pay for their services, for which end the Board of Education has a credit of one thousand francs for the gymnasium, and of eighteen hundred francs for the school of industry.

§ 201. The rectors are elected by the Governmental Council, the pro-rectors by the Board of Education, from the teachers of each school, for a term of two years, and can re-elect them. Every regular teacher is obliged to accept the office, if elected for the same.

5.—*Regulations in regard to Superintendence.*

§ 202. There is a Committee of Inspection of nine members for each division of the cantonal school. Seven of the members are appointed by the Board of Education, with approval of the Governmental Council; the two others are *ex officio* rector, and prorector.

§ 203. The Committee of Inspection shall watch over the execution of the regulations and resolutions of the Board of Education referring to their respective division, and over matters of discipline and plan of instruction, and shall report on all items of importance or upon request to the Board of Education.

§ 204. The superintendence of gymnastic and military practice shall belong to a special committee of seven members, five of whom are elected by the Board of Education, with approval of the Governmental Council; the other two are both rectors, or, in case of absence, the prorectors. The duties of this Committee are the same as in § 203.

§ 205. Special regulations define the competency and degrees of disciplinary punishment of committee of inspection, convent of teachers, rector and prorector.

§ 206. A steward for the cantonal school and an attendant for the officers of the school, or both offices combined in one person, shall be appointed, and receive a suitable pay.

III.—THE VETERINARY SCHOOL.

1.—Object and Organization.

§ 207. A veterinary school is established for the purpose of training practical and efficient veterinary surgeons.

§ 208. All branches of science pertaining to this profession, and the sciences connected therewith, shall be taught in each year; chiefly—

I.—NATURAL SCIENCE, NATURAL PHILOSOPHY, CHEMISTRY, BOTANY, ZOOLOGY.

II.—Professional Science, Anatomy, (Comparative, Microscopic, Surgical, and Pathologic,) Physiology, Exterior, Dietetic, Training of Animals, Pathology and Therapeutics, and the Theory of Surgical Diseases, Operations, Obstetrics, Shoeing, Clinic, Ambulatory Clinic, etc.

§ 209. A hospital for animals, an anatomy, a smithing shop, and necessary collections are connected with the school.

§ 210. The complete course embraces six semi-annual terms, upon which the order of lessons has been properly divided. The regular admittance of scholars takes place at the commencement of the summer term. A public examination is held at the end of each scholastic year.

2.—Duties of the Scholars.

§ 211. Each scholar or auditor shall register his name before being admitted to the instructions of the school. Regular pupils shall participate in all the studies of the programme; auditors may modify their plan with consent of the rector.

§ 212. Scholars applying for admittance must be sixteen years of age, and present good testimonials; if from the canton, they shall generally be registered as regular pupils, subject to examination in the branches of knowledge taught in secondary schools.

§ 213. Every scholar and auditor (except § 214,) shall pay a fee of registration of twelve francs, and a fee of tuition at the commencement of each semi-annual course of twenty francs, (including the contribution for collections.) The registration fee and fifty per cent. of the tuition fee fall into the school treasury; the balance is divided among the teachers in proportion to the number of their lessons.

§ 214. Pupils of the veterinary school, who are qualified, may attend lessons at the upper school of industry or lectures at the university, subject to rules established in the interest of good order, and with consent of the Committee of Inspection; for this they pay the usual fee. The same privilege is granted to the students of these schools, with reference to lectures in the veterinary school.

3.—Teachers.

§ 215. The instructions are given by two regular teachers and one assistant. One of the regular teachers attends to the hospital of animals and its clinic, to instructions in pathology and therapeutics; the other to anatomy and physiology. Each of them is engaged for from eighteen to twenty lessons per week.

§ 216. The teacher of anatomy shall have an assistant dissector, and for the clinic, also, an assistant shall be engaged; the appointments come from the Committee of Inspection, on request of the teacher.

§ 217. A director is entrusted with the chief management of the veterinary school; particularly he shall see that the order of instruction is carried out, and that the scholars conduct themselves with propriety in and out of school. The director presides over the meetings of the teachers. He is elected by the Board of Education for a term of two years, and may be re-elected.

§ 218. The teacher of clinic receives an annual salary of two thousand francs, a residence and garden; the other teachers receive two thousand four hundred francs per year. Assistants shall receive remuneration according to the number of lessons, for which purpose a credit of three thousand five hundred francs is granted.

For the assistant director and the assistant in the clinic, one thousand francs per year are at the disposal of the board; the latter must have a room in the establishment.

For other expenditures, servant, nursing of sick animals, material, and means of instruction, etc., the annual sum of two thousand four hundred francs is placed to the credit of the Board of Education.

§ 219. From the stamp duties, (*Viehschein Stempel*,) the sum of one thousand francs flows into the treasury for the veterinary school; all other receipts are from the treasury of the State.

4.—Committee of Inspection.

§ 220. The superintendence of the institution is entrusted to a committee of five members, which attends to the execution of the laws and regulations, and the resolutions from the Board of Education, relating to the veterinary school, and supervises the progress of instruction, the labor of the teachers, and the conduct of the scholars. On all important matters, they make report to the Board of Education, after consultation with the teachers, or on receiving their written opinion.

IV.—TEACHERS' SEMINARY.

1.—Object and Organization.

§ 221. The seminary has been established to train efficient teachers for the popular schools of the canton, to enable young men to become familiar with the duties, the organization, and wants of a good public school.

§ 222. Candidates for admission into the seminary must be fifteen years of age, in good health, and without bodily deformity; moreover, they should present favorable certificates in regard to their moral conduct, and give satisfactory evidence as to their attainments in the third course of a secondary school, namely: in biblical history, German language, French language, arithmetic, geometry, history, and geography; natural history, singing, drawing, penmanship. At first, scholars are admitted for three months of trial, after which the permanent admittance is granted upon the recommendation of the teachers.

§ 223. The number of new pupils to be received from the canton every year is regulated by the Board of Education; the total number shall not exceed one hundred, and gratuitous instruction shall be given them. Pupils from other parts, who obtain the permission of the Board of Education, may attend the course on payment of sixty francs per year, half of which for the treasury of the seminary, and the remainder to be divided among the teachers in proportion to the number of their lessons.

§ 224. The course of instruction at the seminary is four years. The distribution and degrees of the different branches of instruction is defined by the plan of lessons. The course shall terminate at the end of the first semi-annual term of the fourth year, and the remainder of that year be employed in a general recapitulation, with practice in teaching. The Board of Education may assign some of the students to assist teachers in their school. Eight weeks of vacation during the year are determined by the inspection.

§ 225. The course at the seminary includes the following branches: Religious and moral instruction, pedagogy, the German and French language, mathematics, history, geography, natural history, singing, music, (violin and piano,) penmanship, drawing, gymnastic and military exercise, gardening and farm work. All branches are obligatory, except music on the piano.

§ 226. All instructions shall be given with a view to the future profession of the student and the special object and organization of popular schools. Particular care should be taken that the subject matter of the plan of instruction is fully understood and digested, and the pupil practised in a proper treatment and application of the same; for this practical end the lessons in pedagogy also should be given.

§ 227. In order to institute experiments in teaching, a practice school is connected with the seminary, which, in organization and object, should be a model primary school.

§ 228. There is a boarding-house in the seminary; but pupils are not required to live in it: on the contrary, they are at liberty to find accommodation elsewhere, provided it be in a respectable family.

The payment for board is two hundred and forty francs per year for citizens of the canton, and four hundred francs for those from other cantons, for which they receive board, lodging, washing, light, and medical attendance.

§ 229. To aid students of limited means, the Board of Education has a credit of nine thousand francs, from which board, at the convent, total or partial, or a sum not exceeding three hundred francs, can be granted to those who prove ability, industry, and good deportment. Free scholarships and stipends are given by the Board of Education, upon recommendation of the teachers.

§ 230. Each student receives, at the end of the course, a certificate of admission to the final examination, and the Board of Education decides the question of admittance.

Pupils withdrawing from the seminary, who do not desire to devote themselves to the profession of teaching, or who quit the same within two years after they leave the seminary, shall pay the amounts fixed at in §§ 223 and 228 for citizens of other cantons, and refund all stipends received; under special circumstances, the Board of Education can relieve them of this duty.

2.—Teachers.

§ 231. The body of teachers of a seminary consists of one director and one assistant, the necessary number of teachers for the several branches, and the teacher of the practice school.

§ 232. The director has the immediate superintendence and direction of the seminary and the practice school; he attends to the pedagogy and method of instruction, and supervises the labors of the teachers, the studies and conduct of the pupils, and exhorts them to piety and attendance at public worship; he gives instruction in each class from twelve to eighteen hours per week, and calls and presides over the convention of teachers.

In cases of absence or sickness of the director, a deputy is appointed from the regular teachers by the Board of Education.

§ 233. The director also superintends the boarding-house, and regulates the order of the same; renders to the Board of Education an account of its expenses of the past year, and the proposed expenditure made by the Committee of Inspection for the next year. In the administration of the economy of the boarding-house, he shall have the aid of an assistant.

§ 234. The director receives an annual pay of one thousand eight hundred to two thousand five hundred francs, and board, residence, fuel, light, and washing for himself and family, and the assistant, who, besides, has a fixed remuneration.

§ 235. All teachers, inclusive of the practice school, shall give the instructions in accordance with the plan of lessons and the special regulations of the Board of Education. They assist the director in the supervision of the pupils, and advise with him on all matters pertaining to instruction, certificates to pupils, their admittance and promotion, recommendations for free scholarships and stipends, and on disciplinary measures.

§ 236. A total credit of sixteen thousand francs is accorded for the salaries of these teachers, from which the Board of Education pays an annual amount to each, in proportion to their work; yet a teacher shall not be employed in teaching for more than twenty-eight hours per week. For official duties outside of the seminary, director or teachers receive six francs per day.

§ 237. The director of the seminary is elected by the Governmental Council, upon proposition of the Board of Education; the other teachers are elected by the latter; also the assistant, on proposition of the director. The appointments, except that of the assistant and the teacher of gymnastics, shall be for life; but, generally a trial term of two years precedes the definite appointment. The teacher of religion must be a member of the ministry of the canton.

§ 238. For the maintenance and increase of the library and collections, for purchase of means of instruction in the seminary or the practice school, the gymnastic course, etc., the annual sum of one thousand five hundred francs shall be set aside.

3.—Committee of Inspection.

§ 239. The Board of Education attends to the supervision of the seminary and practice school, by a special committee of seven members, which make regular

visitations and superintend the work of director and teachers, and the progress of the students; they advise on all plans of instruction, and return all reports of the director or teachers, and the recommendations for stipends or free scholarships to the Board of Education.

The director is an advisory member of this committee, and the other teachers also may be called to be present in their meetings; they shall not be present at deliberations concerning their person.

V.—AGRICULTURAL SCHOOL.

§ 240. An agricultural school has been established with the object of training theoretical and practical farmers. Connected with this school is a farm for practical cultivation. This institute is under the immediate supervision of the agricultural commission, and administered by the Department of the Interior. The latter, however, gives annual information to the Board of Education of the plan and condition of the school, and the Board of Education may, at any time, inspect the same, and submit any proposition or observation to the Interior Department.

The teachers of the agricultural school are appointed on the recommendation from the Board of Education, by whom they may be examined as to their knowledge and abilities.

B.—LIBRARIES AND COLLECTIONS.

§ 241. Professors and teachers, students and pupils of superior schools have the privilege of admission to and the use of the cantonal library, upon conditions defined by the regulations. The State appropriates for the library the annual sum of five thousand francs.

§ 242. For the management and increase of collections of art, natural and medical collections, as:

- (a) The archæologic museum,
- (b) The zoologic museum,
- (c) The collection of minerals,
- (d) The collection of geognostic and petrifications,
- (e) The physical,
- (f) Chemical,
- (g) Anatomic,
- (h) Obstetric,
- (i) Surgical,
- (k) Pharmaceutic,
- (l) Mercantile cabinets, and
- (m) The botanic garden,

The annual sum of fourteen thousand francs is appropriated to the credit of the Board of Education.

C.—STIPENDS.

§ 243. To aid young citizens of the canton, of talent, industry, and moral deportment, in obtaining a superior artistic, technical, or professional education, for which they have not the pecuniary means, the annual amount of twelve thousand francs is to be appropriated from the State budget, besides the sums provided by §§ 229 and 275.

This amount includes the annual contribution from the city of Zurich, of one thousand one hundred and sixty-six francs, to be bestowed on students of theology.

The annual sum of five thousand francs is to be appropriated in aiding poor students at the gymnasium. The Board of Education, on recommendation of the District School Committees, shall distribute these stipends.

§ 244. The above sum of twelve thousand francs shall be used in this manner: Three hundred francs as remuneration for the inspector of stipends of the university; two thousand seven hundred francs for students from the canton visiting foreign universities, and the remainder as stipends for students of the cantonal or any other university of equal rank in Switzerland.

§ 245. Stipends are granted by the Board of Education with advice of all inspectors; they amount to sums of one hundred to six hundred francs, according to the necessities of each case.

§ 246. Moreover, the Board of Education has power to grant, at the highest, four stipends to scholars of each of the four faculties of the university; fifteen stipends to pupils of the cantonal school; two stipends to pupils of the veterinary school. They can also grant free tuition to ten pupils of the lower gymnasium or of the lower school of industry.

§ 247. Stipendiaries shall not pay any fees of registration at the different cantonal schools, and no contributions towards the museums.

Assistant surgeons of the medical or surgical divisions of the cantonal hospital shall give a free attendance to stipendiaries asking for their professional advice.

§ 248. All stipends are granted for one year, and must be renewed annually.

§ 249. The immediate supervision of students receiving stipends at cantonal schools is vested in a teacher of the university, the rector of the gymnasium, the rector of the school of industry, or the director of the veterinary school, respectively, and in the Board of Education in regard to those at foreign schools. The inspector of stipendiaries at the university is elected by the Board of Education for a term of two years.

§ 250. All the officers mentioned in § 249 report on their charges to the Board of Education whenever called upon to do so, or whenever they deem necessary; and they shall attend to all instructions given in behalf of such students.

§ 251. The cantonal school administrator pays the stipends quarterly, on a written order from the proper inspector.

II.—SPECIAL LAWS REGARDING SCHOOLS OF THE CITIES OF ZURICH AND WINTERTHUR.

§ 252. Where special laws do not interfere, the general legislation preceding applies to school matters in the cities of Zurich and Winterthur.

a.—Special conditions of the City of Zurich.

§ 253. The city of Zurich forms a school district and a school commune. The mayor of the city is President of the same.

§ 254. The superintendence of the public schools of the city shall be exercised by a city School Committee, under direction of the District Committee, which are elected by the school commune, (also their President from the members,) for a term of four years, the term of one-half of the members expiring every two years. Vice-Presidents and Secretary are also elected by the school commune.

§ 255. The School Committee can divide itself into sections for the purpose of more special inspection of the various classes of schools.

§ 256. A certain number of members of the school commune shall be elected by the latter to constitute a board of advisers to the School Committee, forming thus the general committee; they shall also elect the teachers and the administrator of the school fund. The safe keeping of titles, investment of capital, etc., of the school fund, may be entrusted by the school commune to the central administration of the city.

§ 257. The compensation of school officers shall be fixed by special regulations, with approval of the Board of Education.

§ 258. All schools obligatory to parochial communes, by the present system, shall also be established in the city of Zurich. Other schools, not included in this system, shall be established only with consent of the Board of Education.

§ 259. No deviations from the general regulations for schools of the city shall be permitted, unless by special consent of the Board of Education.

§ 260. The general School Committee shall elect the teachers from the candidates examined and approved by the Board of Education; subordinate teachers can be selected by the city School Committee. All elections must be approved by the Board of Education.

§ 261. Special regulations shall be issued in regard to the position of teachers in the School Committee, the formation of a teachers' convention, and the meeting of the same.

The School Committee shall advise with the teachers on general matters of schools and education, or request the opinion of the teachers' convention, either in writing or by their deputies.

b.—Special Conditions of the City of Winterthur.

§ 262. The city of Winterthur forms a school district and a school commune. The mayor of the city shall be President of the same.

§ 263. All schools, as defined by the present system, shall be established in the city of Winterthur, and no other schools can be organized without the approval of the Board of Education.

§ 264. The school commune of Winterthur shall have the right—

1. To administer the school fund, *viz.*: The safe keeping of titles, investment of capital, and collection of interest, through the central administration of the city.

2. To appoint the President of the city school Committee.

3. To limit the right to a seat in the School Committee to a certain number of teachers.

§ 265. The representation of teachers in the School Committee, the formation of a teachers' convention, time and meeting of the same, shall be regulated with approval of the Board of Education. The School Committee shall advise with the teachers on all general matters of schools or education, and solicit the opinion of the teachers' convention, which the latter delivers in writing, or by the mouth of two deputies.

§ 266. No deviations from the general laws on education shall be permitted without special permit of the Board of Education.

III.—PUBLIC SCHOOLS NOT PART OF THIS SYSTEM.

§ 267. Whenever communes or corporations desire to establish other schools than those provided for in this system, from public or private means, for which the aid of the State or the commune is asked, they shall obtain the consent of the Board of Education, which examines and approves the plan of instruction of such school.

Notice shall be given to the District School Committee of the engagement of teachers at these schools, that they may report the fact to the Board of Education for inquiry into their qualification.

§ 268. All schools of this kind are under official control, and this supervision shall be regulated by special instructions of the Board of Education.

IV.—PRIVATE INSTRUCTION.

§ 269. Private teaching shall be permitted within the following limits:

§ 270. The establishment of private schools of all kinds, including schools for orphans, Sunday and infant schools, etc., shall require the approval of the Board of Education, which will be preceded by an inquiry into the plan and organization of the school.

§ 271. Institutions which are in place of popular schools must give an adequate instruction to their pupils.

§ 272. Special laws shall regulate the supervision of these schools, and the rendering of annual reports as by § 268. The Board of Education has power to suspend private institutions, or interdict teaching to private teachers, if want of order or qualification comes to their knowledge.

§ 273. The Board of Education shall have power to grant aid to schools established for the more general public interest, in proportion to their importance, and to assist enterprises of communes or corporations (§ 267) for the promotion of the education of young boys and girls after they leave the popular schools.

PART III.—OF TEACHERS.**I.—AS INDIVIDUALS.** **I.—Education of Teachers.***a.—Education in the Teachers' Seminary.*

§ 274. Teachers of popular schools are educated at the seminary. §§ 221, 239.

b.—Education of Secondary Teachers.

§ 275. An annual amount of three thousand francs shall be appropriated towards the education of secondary teachers, from which the Board of Education can grant stipends to young men of ability and pedagogic education. Those

who receive a stipend may select the superior school at which they will pursue their studies, with approval of the Board of Education.

2.—ADMITTANCE INTO THE PROFESSION.

A.—EXAMINATION.

§ 276. Whoever wants to be admitted to the profession of primary or secondary teacher, or to receive an "unconditional certificate of qualification," must pass satisfactorily an examination in theory and practice of teaching before a committee of examination. The regular examinations take place in the spring. In special cases the Board of Education can appoint an extraordinary examination.

According to the result of the examination, the candidate receives a certificate of "capable," or "conditionally capable," or he is returned without certificate. The certificate of "conditionally capable" obliges the possessor to present himself again for examination within the next four years, when he will either receive the qualification of "capable," or be rejected; he may attend again the course in the last part of the fourth year, at the seminary, within the time specified above.

B.—ELECTION OF TEACHERS.

a.—*Election of Primary Teachers.*

1.—*Preceding the Election.*

§ 277. The Board of Education immediately fills, temporarily, all vacant teacherships. The Communal School Committee, four weeks after the vacancy occurred, shall call a meeting of the members of the commune, to decide whether the temporary appointment shall continue or a definite engagement take place; if the latter, whether they shall call a qualified teacher or open competition for the place. If they conclude to extend a call, the Committee proposes a candidate, and one week afterwards they proceed with the election.

2.—*Manner of Extending a Call.*

§ 278. If the meeting have decided to call a teacher for the vacant position, the Committee shall proceed with the election; however, the meeting can also resolve to reconsider the previous resolution, and to refer the question of a call back to the Committee. In this case, the meeting may double the number of members of the Committee for this act by immediate election, and, in order to afford time for deliberation, and to receive the advice of the superior authorities, the final election shall take place within four weeks afterwards.

§ 279. If a call has been made, and the candidate does not accept the position, the commune proceeds to another election within the next four weeks.

3.—*Notice of Vacancy.*

§ 280. If the commune resolved to give public notice of the vacancy, the School Committee shall issue such notice, fixing a time of at least two weeks for receiving applications. A trial lesson may be required of each applicant, in the presence of the School Committee, and the result be laid before the commune, with an account of their proceedings.

§ 281. On the second or third Sunday after the trial lessons, the Committee shall call a general meeting of the commune, to lay before the same a list of applicants and the proceedings with regard to them.

§ 282. The commune shall then decide on the definite engagement of a teacher, or the continuation of the provisional teacher, and, if the former, proceed to the election. They may also resolve to have other trial lessons, in which case the final election shall take place two weeks afterwards.

4.—*Temporary Engagement.*

§ 283. If the commune decides in favor of continuing the temporary engagement, they shall be obliged to fill the position permanently within two years from the date of the commencement of the vacancy. Exceptions from this rule shall be granted by the Board of Education in extraordinary cases only.

5.—*Eligibility of Teachers.*

§ 284. Any member of the profession of teachers, in the canton of Zurich, who has a practical experience in teaching of at least two years, and is provided with an unconditional certificate of ability, can be elected a teacher of a primary school.

6.—*Mode of Election and Confirmation.*

§ 285. Elections are always by secret ballot. The proceedings shall be reported to the Governmental Council, who transmits the same to the Board of Education for confirmation.

§ 286. If the legality of an election is disputed, a recourse must be had without failure to the Governmental Council within the period of four days; a reply shall be given within the same time, and the acts referred to the Board of Education. The period, as per § 283, is suspended until the matter has been finally disposed of.

§ 287. If the day fixed by law for an election should fall on a church communion or festival, it shall be postponed to the following Sunday.

b.—*Election of Secondary Teachers.*

§ 288. The election of a secondary teacher shall be preceded by public notice of vacancy on the part of the Secondary School Committee, which, for all duties pertaining to the election, shall be increased to twofold its number by addition of representatives from the parochial school communes. Applicants may reside outside of the canton of Zurich.

§ 289. If the committee prefer the temporary engagement of a teacher to a definite election, they must apply to the Board of Education, who will make a provisional appointment. Provisional teachers enjoy all the rights of permanent officials, and the temporary appointment cannot proceed beyond two years. Assistant teachers for secondary schools are appointed by the Board of Education.

c.—*Election of Teachers at Superior Schools.*

§ 290. Public notice shall be given of all vacancies at the superior cantonal schools, for the purpose of free competition. However, the Committee of Election (see § 292) has power to extend call, instead of proceeding to an election.

§ 291. Applicants for teachers at the cantonal school, the veterinary school, and the teachers' seminary, shall give a trial lesson, and submit to being examined, unless there is other satisfactory evidence of their capacity.

§ 292. The Board of Education, with two members from the commission of inspection of the particular school, form the Committee of Education, and shall have power to fill vacant positions at the cantonal and the veterinary schools, and the teachers' seminary, either definitely or temporarily. The members from commissions of inspection have the same vote as those of the Board of Education.

§ 293. The election of professors of the university is prescribed by special regulations, §§ 128 to 132.

III.—SUBSEQUENT EDUCATION OF TEACHERS.

§ 294. Teachers, chapters, and conferences regulate the subsequent studies of teachers, by regulations on order and organization of the same, as specified hereafter.

§ 295. The Board of Education offers annually a prize question for all popular teachers and candidates. The prizes are from twenty to sixty francs, and a credit of three hundred francs is set apart for this purpose.

IV.—PRIVILEGES AND DUTIES OF TEACHERS.

§ 296. All teachers in the canton of Zurich, unless otherwise appointed by law, hold their positions during life.

§ 297. Every teacher who accepts any other public office or employment, except that of a member of the Legislature of Switzerland, of the Governmental Council, of a jury, of a Committee on Election, or of the Board of Education; and every teacher who accepts an agency, etc., must obtain the permission of the Board of Education or resign his position. A consent given may be withdrawn, if the school suffers by the additional duties.

§ 298. Any other employment not suitable for the position of a teacher, or any other duties taxing the teacher's time to the injury of the school, shall be prohibited.

§ 299. Teachers of general public schools shall obtain the consent of their School Committee for any intermission, and always give them information of any regular suspension of school. They shall also communicate to the School Committee their observations on special wants of the school, and direct all complaints to them.

V.—ECONOMICAL CONDITION OF TEACHERS.

A.—PRIMARY TEACHERS.

§ 300. Teachers at primary schools are classed as follows :

- (a) Engaged definitely for life by the communes.
- (b) Provisionally appointed by the Board of Education.

(c) Assistants appointed in case of sickness, etc., of the regular teacher.

§ 301. The legal income of teachers is—

- (a) For a teacher engaged definitely from the commune:

1. Two hundred francs yearly salary, a free dwelling, garden land, a certain quantity of wood, or, in place of the latter items, a suitable remuneration.

2. Three francs per year as fees of tuition from each pupil of the day school, and one and a half francs from each pupil of the repetition school, etc.

3. An annual contribution from the State, to complete the salary, (as per 1) of teachers of four years' service to five hundred and twenty francs, and of those of above four years' service to seven hundred francs; and for definitely engaged teachers of twelve years service, further additions of one hundred francs for the thirteenth to eighteenth year of service; of two hundred francs for nineteen to twenty-four years of service, and of three hundred francs after the twenty-fifth year of service; the years of service to date, from the first employment as teacher in the canton of Zurich, not counting any intermission except when they were the result of the teacher's conduct, upon which point the Board of Education will decide.

(b) For an assistant teacher, ten francs per week, not excluding vacations, to be paid by the teacher.

§ 302. The commune shall furnish the fuel necessary for the school-rooms and keep in repair the school-house and teacher's residence.

§ 303. Salary and fees of tuition shall be paid the teacher quarterly by the school administrators.

Additions, as § 301 (a) 3, are fixed annually by the Board of Education, and paid quarterly also.

§ 304. If the regular income of teachers should exceed the amounts, § 301, no deduction shall be made. The communes may grant additional amounts to their teachers.

B.—SECONDARY TEACHERS.

§ 305. The income of secondary teachers shall consist of—

(a) An annual salary of at least one thousand two hundred francs, payable quarterly by the secondary school administrator.

(b) One-third part of all fees of tuition, (§ 120.)

(c) A free residence, garden-land, etc., as § 302.

(d) Additional pay from the State of one hundred francs after seven to twelve years of service; of two hundred francs after thirteen to eighteen years; of three hundred francs after nineteen to twenty-four years, and of four hundred francs after the twenty-fifth year of service, for teachers definitely engaged, (§ 301.)

Assistant teachers shall receive at least eight hundred francs per annum, or more, in proportion to their services, (§ 304.)

c.—Teachers of Superior Schools.

§ 306. The salary of teachers of superior schools is fixed by law, § 136, etc.

d.—General Regulations.

§ 307. If teachers, during a temporary illness, need an assistant, the State grants them an additional pay, a part or the entire amount of the assistant's remuneration.

§ 308. The family of a deceased teacher shall continue to receive the salary or amount of pension for six months from the day of his death, and the State pays his temporary successor during that time.

§ 309. All teachers of popular and superior schools are exempt from service as firemen, watchmen, etc.

§ 310. All public teachers of popular schools shall be members of the teachers' association for widows and orphans; the same with regard to teachers of superior schools, as soon as a similar fund will be established for their widows and orphans.

VI.—RESIGNATION AND WITHDRAWAL.

a.—Withdrawal of a Teacher.

§ 311. Every teacher who wants to withdraw from his engagement in any school, shall present his petition to the Board of Education. A withdrawal generally should take place at the close of a winter's or summer's course, four weeks before its taking effect.

§ 312. Teachers who want to withdraw from the profession, shall be struck from the list of teachers, unless they resume their vocation within the space of three years, when they shall generally pass a new examination.

b.—Pensioning of a Teacher.

§ 313. Teachers who, after thirty years of service, desire to be pensioned, for reasons of age or health, shall receive, with the approval of the Board of Education, from the State, an annual pension to the amount of at least one-half of their former fixed salary. The Board of Education may also pension a teacher without his petition.

§ 314. Teachers, also, who, from other causes not of their own fault, are unable to attend to teaching any longer, shall receive a pension of the same amount as in § 313, if the Board of Education resolves upon their pensioning; or a total sum to be fixed specially, according to circumstances, if their petition for withdrawal is offered by them.

II.—AS CORPORATIONS.

a.—Chapters and Conferences.

§ 315.—The teachers of a district and the candidates for teachershships of primary and secondary schools, form a district chapter of teachers. The Board of Education has power to excuse teachers who, at the same time, labor at superior schools from attending the Chapter. The director and teachers of a seminary, and the teachers of the practical schools, shall make periodical visits to the district chapters, and the president of the chapters shall inform the director of the seminary of time and place of their meeting and the order of proceedings.

§ 316. Chapters arrange theoretical and practical exercises in teaching for the improvement of their members. They give to the Board of Education their opinion on plans of instruction, the introduction of new means of instruction, and all important matters of organization. The chapters elect their officers, deputies for the prosynod, members of the District School Committees, etc., and review all accounts regarding synods, libraries of chapters, reading-rooms, etc.

§ 317. Four regular meetings of chapters shall take place in each year. For the purpose of more perfect practice in teaching, the chapters may divide into sections and keep more frequent meetings.

§ 318. The officers of a chapter are President, Vice-President, and Secretary; they are elected for a term of two years, and the Board of Education, the District and Parochial School Committees shall have information of their election.

§ 319. All elections in the chapter are by secret ballot.

§ 320. Chapters shall return a report on their labor and the proceedings of sections to the Board of Education.

§ 321. Each chapter shall receive annually the amount of sixty francs for increasing their library, and forty-five francs for minor expenses of their President.

6.—School Synod.

§ 322. The members of all chapters and the teachers of the cantonal and superior schools of Winterthur compose the school synod.

§ 323. The members of the Board of Education, of the commissions of inspection of the cantonal school, and the teachers' seminary, and the members of District School Committees, are advisory members of the school synod. The Board of Education must be represented at the sessions of synod by two members.

§ 324. The school synod deliberates on all means for the promotion of public instruction, and on all propositions for the modification, etc., in school matters, which are presented by them to the proper authorities. A lecture on a subject of education announced in the public invitation, shall be held at the meeting of the school synod, where they shall receive copies of all annual reports of the Board of Education to the Governmental Council.

§ 325. One regular meeting per year shall be held by the school synod; all special meetings shall be called by the Board of Education at their own instance or that of the resolutions of four chapters.

§ 326. The proceedings of the synod shall be public.

§ 327. The synod elect their officers for a term of two years by absolute majority, viz: a President, Vice-President, and Secretary.

§ 328. A prosynod is organized previous to the meeting of the synod, from the President of the synod, the deputies from chapters, one deputy from the university, one from the gymnasium, one from the school of industry, and a deputy from the superior schools of Winterthur.

The two members of the Board of Education and the director of the seminary are advisory members of the prosynod.

§ 329. The prosynod decides on the order of proceedings at synod, and no subject can be introduced in the synod unless approved by the prosynod.

§ 330. An extract of the proceedings of synod shall be published, and a copy furnished to each actual and advisory member; the publication of discourses or reports made in synod may also be ordered, and the expenses resulting therefrom will be paid by the State.

CONCLUSION.

§ 331. These laws shall take effect from the beginning of the scholastic year 1860-61, and all former laws not in accordance with these present, are hereby repealed.

ZURICH, December 23, 1859.

THE GOVERNMENTAL COUNCIL.

IV. SCHOOLS AS THEY WERE IN THE UNITED STATES SIXTY AND SEVENTY YEARS AGO.

With Article.

LETTER FROM SAMUEL W. SEFTON,

Assistant Superintendent of Public Schools, New York City.

DEAR BARNARD:—In response to your urgent and repeated requests that I would jot down reminiscences of my schools and teachers at about the beginning of the present century, you will receive herewith, in my own manner, some inklings of one who has long struggled for the improvement of primary education in his native city, performing his humble part, if no otherwise, with earnestness and patience. Born in New York, the 23d of January, 1789, my fifth year found me at an old-fashioned "Dame's School," in a nook of old Beaver street, the docile pupil of a kind-hearted, gentle, old lady, Mrs. Douglass, who kept school in her own sitting-room, with every accompaniment, neat and pleasant. She had a half-crazy son that walked the streets, whose infirmities occasioned us at times some impressive moral lessons from his careful and tender mother—impressions of tenderness and compassion which were afterward revived at another school, by the use of a reading book containing a similar tale of pathos, called "Crazy Samuel," from the French of Berquin. At this, my first school, the means of instruction were, "The Horn Book," and the first pages of Webster; while spectacles on nose, the strap in the lap, and premiums of ginger-bread, were all the apparatus that quickened our early development,—sensible woman!

My next school for a year, was the Parish School of old Trinity—"Master Youngs"—a man of stern severity, but otherwise a good teacher. The continuance of Webster and writing copies was the only advance at this school. Here the penalty of "erring humanity" was strict and uniform. It was a small ladder inclined beside the teacher's desk, which the culprit climbed, and the severest application of the cane followed, after the manner of Dr. Busby, as expressed in the time-worn motto, "Rod in pickle," &c. I may say, by the way, that though attending schools of the severest discipline, I was never punished in any way, neither at school or elsewhere. I was a general favorite with my schoolmates, and never made battle with any, so that I may vaunt the title of "the great ~~un~~struck." Master Youngs' school house is still in the rear of Trinity church-yard, near the corner of Rector street—a comfortable, solid, brick building, with a small cupola and a bell. The school hall was the entire upper floor, with five windows in front, and others in the rear, thus affording plenty of air and light, two of the most essential requisites for the school-room.

After the Parish School, part of my seventh and my eighth year was spent at the advanced school of Mr. Best, a school-master of good character and

standing, who afterward wrote a history of the city—descriptive and statistic—a volume of some size. The school house was a yellow wooden building, one of a row of solid sightly private dwellings of brick, not far from Rector, in Greenwich street. I have no fables to tell of poor school-houses. All the schools I have attended were held in commodious buildings, and well appointed in most respects. Mr. Best occupied the lower part of the house, and the school was held above, occupying the whole upper floor. This was the custom of the day; even the first merchants had their stores and offices on the lower floor—dwelling above. It was a pleasant, well-lighted and airy room, and well appointed in furniture for 1796. Here "Webster's spelling-book" was continued to "Baker and Dominion," that being the preparatory step to commencing to read. Thence we spelt successively to the end; with the often puzzling test of spelling across the columns, thus: Ti-con-de-ro-ga, Sag-a-de-hoo, Mich-il-i-mack-i-nac, repeating every syllable as if one word, till the last, long repetition of the syllables of the three words, was as the vespertine chimes of old Trinity bells that used to close up Saturday of the week. Writing was continued from pot-hooks and trammels to copies. Arithmetic was now begun; "Dilworth" was the text-book. The most that was remarkable about it was, as I recollect, that his likeness, most coarsely engraved, and frightfully ugly, was both on the cover and opposite the title page. It was drawn pen in hand, with "cap and tassels," the pedagogue's costume, and the following doggerel distich beneath it:

"Dilworth, the man, by gracious Heaven designed
The friend and father of the human kind."

I have often laughed over the caricature, whilst the other boys repeated, as if in contrast, their *experience* of his friendship as expressed in the following couplets:

"Multiplication is vexation,
Division is as bad,
Tare and Tret, it makes me fret,
And Practice makes me mad."

—all the while wondering where was the humanity and friendship, in preparing such hard examples to puzzle our youthful brains. Such were our criticisms and childlike opinions of this venerable "friend of the human mind." Besides the few scrapes from Webster, our reading was from Berquin's "Looking Glass," a translation from the French. The author was a juvenile writer of equal skill with Miss Edgeworth, with the advantage of not being so entirely void of the unction of Scriptural truth. It contains a series of short, moral stories, on the passions, anger, pride, cruelty, &c. I think it would be serviceable to primary schools to revive this old book; also Miss Robins' "Introduction," and the "Popular Lessons," which largely extract from such writers, in the German and the French. To the plastic influence of Berquin's "Looking Glass," I think I owe much of the formation of my character, though only read at the end of my seventh year. Thus closed my profitable course of instruction under the care of Mr. Best.

My father dying in '98, (my mother having died in '94,) I was left in the guardianship of an elder brother, and was sent, in October, 1798, to the Episcopal Academy, at Cheshire, Connecticut, fourteen miles from New Haven.

Here the Rev. Dr. Bowden was principal, who was afterward Professor of Belles Lettres in Columbia College. The Rev. John McVickar, who was then his pupil and my companion, succeeded him in that professorship, and, I believe, still continues in it. The Academy at Cheshire was a preparatory collegiate school of good reputation, and still is so. It has sent forth some honored names. The school-house was a sightly building of brick, with a fine play-ground around it. It had two large rooms on the lower floor; divided by a hall. The whole upper floor was a recitation and assembly room, for lecturing, &c. The stairs was outside, to save room. I here commenced grammar and geography, with Latin and Greek. The-text books in course were: "Cordery," "Erasmus," "Cæsar's Comments," "Virgil," "Cicero," and the "Greek Testament." In geography, our only maps were on the globes, together with those interleaved in "Gurthie's Geography." I think this book an excellent model for a text-book for this study. It was very full on the doctrine of the spheres, and the text was divided into descriptive and physical geography—climate, soil, rivers, mountains, productions, curiosities, religion, and history—quite particular and full under each head. Morse's was then, I suppose, extant, but I do not remember to have seen it. In this study we had a very practical plan; that of writing occasional compositions of supposed voyages, describing varying circumstances, products, exports, manners, and customs, &c., of the places visited. I well remember how I once prided myself on a fine flourish in one of these compositions, describing an evening at sea in the Levant. I gave it thus: "And an halo round the moon gave indications of an approaching storm." Having been praised for this, it was often repeated on the play-grounds with many a rhetorical flourish. We here used "Murray's English Grammar," and for reading books, (again) "Berquin's Looking Glass," with the "English Reader," and "Sequel," of Murray. These latter are excellent books as tests of elocutionary skill. They contain judicious selections from the pure wells of our English classics; the chaste and pure style of Lord Chatham, Addison, &c.; and is all of the highest moral standard. I think there is nothing like them for these purposes; but from their high order of literature, they are not sufficiently progressive for teaching to read, but excellent for practice at the close of the rhetorical course. "Blair's Lectures," I think, was used with these reading books. You will, perhaps, be somewhat surprised to learn that we had dramatic exhibitions, fall and spring, consisting of five act tragedies and comedies, with other dramatic varieties. Myself and a son of the Rev. Bishop Jarvis, afterward a minister, performed the female parts, in full costumes, curled and powdered wigs, ostrich feathers, jewelry, &c.—rather presumptuous this for "the land of steady habits." Think of boys, from eleven on to thirteen, personating Jocasta, in the play of "Œdipus;" "Irene," in Johnson's tragedy; the Lady, in Milton's "Mask of Comus," and Miss Hardcastle, in Goldsmith's "She stoops to conquer," which was performed "Tony Lumpkins" and all. These female characters, and others, were performed entire by me, winning applause from a select adult audience from New York, New Haven, and elsewhere. In the present fast age, such things would surely prove a destructive wild-fire, and should by no means be ventured; yet from these classes, I remember we had in after life, many worthy men, ministers of the Gospel, and useful Christians. The counteracting influence of the moral elements of the day must have neutralized the poison. The method of teaching here was the usual course of tasking, and say-

ing lessons; teaching more from the book, than through the teacher. I think Dr. Bowden left in 1801 for Columbia College. This movement produced quite a revolution in affairs at Cheshire, by the introduction of Dr. Wm. Smith, a man of rare qualities and tact for teaching; also governing well. He brought with him philosophical apparatus which he proposed to use in the school. The trustees, however, would not permit it, thinking it would interfere with the classical studies. But our "John Smith," we may call him so, embodied the best qualities of all the Smiths, gold, silver, and iron, and was firmly bent on introducing the natural sciences, if he could; so he compromised with the trustees, who put up for him, in the school-room, a closet for the apparatus, and permitted him to give at the academy after church on Sunday afternoon, a course of practical lectures on "Natural Theology," bringing in the use of apparatus to illustrate, which was entirely successful. No summer languor, nor pinching cold of winter, could ever lessen the interest of these Sunday lessons. It was our most intellectual training; and I suppose laid the corner-stone of my after love and zeal for the natural system of mental training, which I used to familiarly call with our own teachers, "*exegitical gymnastics*," the teacher himself being really the book, by the use of the crayon and black-board, with natural objects, and of right apparatus, almost repudiating books, except for the reading course. How such lessons expand and develop the mind, pressing home truth and purity to the heart, and as in our case, gave strength and body to the faith of the young disciples of this Gamaliel, at whose feet they so cheerfully sat learning things, possibly otherwise to be always hidden. I shall never forget the lesson and its illustrations on the beneficence of God; His wisdom and power in creation by appointing the intercourse of nations. The ocean for a highway; the camels for the desert; and the sure-footed mule for the mountain passes; and the favoring trade-winds to facilitate commerce. A machine was improvised for the occasion which successfully illustrated the phenomenon. It was like the usual thread-winder, called in Connecticut, "a swift;" two cross pieces on an upright, with sockets, or places for candles on their ends. These were each backed by a piece of tin, acting as a sail, another piece being placed sloping over the tops of the lights; it rested on the upright by a thimble for a socket, when on lighting the candles it immediately rotated with considerable force. We thus understood that the sun's heat was the cause of wind, and that these winds were caused by his track across the torrid zone to his tropical limits, producing the north-east and south-east trades. Such methods of teaching need no system of mnemonics to fix it in memory. You see the particularity with which I present it you after almost seventy years. Before old Yale (I believe) had broached the subject of Geology, we had at Cheshire Academy a wooden box filled with elemental stones arranged and classified, teaching us that the stones had names and were useful, and that the earth was a store-house of treasures for the comfort and use of man.

Fifty years after leaving this school, I was consulted on making the first alterations in the school-room of this academy. Everything remained as of yore, and I for the first time enlightened the then trustees, as to the use of the closet so awkwardly in the way. The former trustees not patronizing the natural sciences, never had had it painted, and thus fifty years after, it testified of the fact. At that time they had a traditional knowledge of the box of minerals, and its having been thrown away as useless, they wondering why stones should

be so nicely packed away and cared for. Thus it was that our loving mother Nature—our true *Alma Mater*—was treated by vulgar and gothic hands. At my first visit I found the old academy in a good state of preservation, it having been painted several times; all else remained as of old. The youngest daughter of the pious old cooper with whom I had resided almost seven of the longest years of my life, had married an Episcopal minister, and now occupied the old homestead. Here I staid a week amidst the haunts of my childhood, that had now become a dream-land, and there I again drank precious drafts from the very self-same

"Old oaken bucket, the iron-bound bucket,
The moss-covered bucket that hung in the well,"

and chatted of the pleasant past with those who were familiar with the "forms and saws" of the by-gones of fifty years ago! A privilege allowed to but few in this uncertain pilgrimage of life. The seeming eccentricities and advancing years of Dr. Smith, I suppose, brought about a separation from his charge; and one of the tutors, the Rev. Mr. Bronson, a most worthy man, and a good scholar, was appointed in his place, shortly after which I left Cheshire for Newark, New Jersey, and made my valedictory to the dear old academy with the reputation of having passed through Yale College; at least, so thought a Reverend Divine who one day introduced me to a friend of his, as an "alumnus of Yale and an apostle of the Sunday School." The latter, with some qualifications, I might have approximated to; but as for the Doctorate, I could lay no claim to it. To stand under the shadow of so great a name as old Yale, not having ever been even under the shade of its ancient and noble elms, nor ever having entered its honored porch, for I left my unfinished studies from my school at Newark for a *voyage* round the world. Thereafter, my knowledge being picked up at odd times, but not in any sufficient quantity as to entitle me to even A. M., much less to D. D.—those "semi-lunar fardels," as those appendages were called, by one declining a Doctorate from some noted College in 1809. As I told you, I left the pleasant, retired, and quiet village of Cheshire, for the more bustling and aspiring town of Newark, New Jersey, a guest, through his kindly hospitality, of Col. Samuel Ogden, a relative of the family. The town was then noticeable for its manufacture and trade in shoes, and a well ordered academy, comprising a high school for girls, and a classical department for boys. The father of the late Wm. C. Woodbridge, of "The Journal of Education," was, I think, the principal of the girls' school at this time, and the boys in charge of Mr. Finley, an Irish gentleman with a *very* broad brogue. He was a ripe scholar, and of most exquisite humor and good nature, and withal a strict disciplinarian, administering his penalties with the cane, on the hand, and over the shoulders, and occasionally, with a short, sharp rap across the knuckles with the usual cry of "Ah! Monsheer." His punishments were administered without counsel; with Platonic dignity, yet with seeming good nature, sometimes with such ridiculous expletives and remarks, as often irresistibly brought sunshine and rainbows through our tears from the smarting rod. The *ferule* was the only instrument of punishment at the Cheshire academy. It was Judge and Jury, most summary and severe. The handle was about nine inches long, with a circular spatula an inch or more in thickness, and about two inches in diameter to compass the palm of the hand. To my own knowledge, as an

observer, it was often unjustly administered, and at all times with undue severity, with great gravity, and no seeming sympathy, while our pleasant Milesian, at the Newark academy, blended smiles with an expressive sobriety of look, that seemed to say that he was *sorry*, but felt that it *must* be done, and the culprit forgot and forgave, yet still remembered the smart of the cane, while the more severe impressions of the ferule was keenly felt, and long remembered; though sometimes suffered with indifference, and even hardihood, as a necessity. How well I remember the daily study of our lessons, round the burning hickory logs in the great Elizabethan fire-place, at the evening hour after supper; and when learning tasks was done, you might have heard the many and sarcastic rounds of jeers about the *old ferula*, as they began to smoke their hands in the chimney among the bacon and dried pumpkins, preparing for thanksgiving, while they, with no thankful spirit, thus prepared daily their roughened hands, to endure philosophically the severe blows of the ferule to-morrow, and were, as I now think, hardening both hands and heart. It was, after all, well meant on the part of the teacher, as my experience has since taught me, being administered with good intent. It was but the spirit of the pedagogue, begotten as a habit, which argued itself into a necessity, intending well, but surely mistaken; for Dr. Bowden, off the platform, was ever gentle, kind, and pleasant, and only donned this cold and repulsive manner when elevated on his rostrum, so that one might wonder whence came such seeming austerity to those under penalty. In correcting the errors of the lesson, the contrast between the two was broad and marked. The one with austere look and the heavy weight of the ferule sustained his authority, while the other did it with a smile, exclaiming, "Pardon a mouse, silver plate;" by interpretation, "*Pardonnez moi si vous plait.*" This was at first accompanied with a gentle touch of the cane. But should the error be repeated, a sharper one over the knuckles, with "Ah! Monsheer," when again a healing smile followed it, seemingly in the best humor of Irish good nature,—a system of mnemonics this, that could but strengthen the memory. Thus was spent my latest school days. Our classical lessons were now all reviewed, and I was about to open old Homer, when I received a summons from home to commence life in earnest! and part of the years 1806 and 7 was spent on a trading voyage in the Straits of Malacca, and four months residence in Canton, preparing for the then lucrative office of an East India supercargo. I returned after fifteen months, and soon after commenced a clerkship in "The New York Bank." Thus far—"the first installment,"—in which I think I decidedly remain your obedient servant, and otherwise, truly yours,

28 UNION SQUARE, N. Y., 15th Oct., 1867.

S. W. SETON.

VI. CIRCULAR RESPECTING ACADEMIES

AND OTHER INSTITUTIONS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C.

To the President of the Board of Trustees, or the Principal of Incorporated Academies and other Seminaries of Secondary Education

The undersigned will be happy to receive a copy of any printed document, and such other information as you may find it convenient to communicate respecting your institution in any or all of the particulars specified in the following Schedule.

HENRY BARNARD,
Commissioner of Education.

I. NAME, LOCATION, AND SPECIAL OBJECT.

II. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

2. The date and object of every benefaction, with the conditions attached, by the donor, especially to those in aid of indigent students, and any circumstances to show the value and the wise management of the benefaction.
3. The manner in which funds were raised to provide for the extension, repairs, and equipment of the buildings, the enlargement and ornamentation of the grounds, and the supply of apparatus, &c.
4. The peculiar qualifications of each Principal, and any peculiar excellence in instruction and discipline, as well as the subsequent career of the several Assistants.
5. The date of the introduction of each new branch, such as Algebra, Geometry, Physiology, Chemistry, and any of the natural sciences, with the text books used, and the facilities of practical illustration and manipulation in the latter. Ascertain the history of Art-studies or ornamental branches, and how paid for and taught.
6. The relations of the departments for males and females, as to instruction and boarding, and the opinions of teachers as to the results of their experience in the co-education of the sexes.
7. The arrangement made for boarding non-resident pupils in commons, clubs, and private families, and the advantages, evils, and expense of each mode; and the extent to which non-resident pupils have resorted to the institution from the County, State, or abroad.
8. The denominational character and policy of the religious teaching.
9. The athletic games and exercises, as well as any systematic forms of manual labor for its healthful or economical results, which have at different times prevailed.
10. Any important change in the principles, methods, and penalties in discipline, and particularly in reference to corporal punishment.
11. Influence of Students' Societies for debate, &c., on the power of using the English Language, and habits of reading. Number of volumes in the Library, and resources for annual increase.
12. Rates of tuition, time of payments, abatements.

III. PRESENT CONDITION under each of the above particulars and general results, such as

1. Whole number of Pupils.
2. Number of College graduates.
3. Number of graduates eminent in political, professional, and industrial life.
4. Influence on other Schools, and education generally.

IV. FUTURE PROSPECTS—if not as favorable as in the past, assign reasons for.

V. APPENDIX.

1. Memoirs of Founders, Benefactors, Instructors, and Alumni.
2. List and, if you can spare, a copy of all printed documents relating to the Institution.

MONSON ACADEMY,

HAMPDEN COUNTY, MASSACHUSETTE.

BY REV. CHARLES HAMMOND, A. M.

MONSON ACADEMY, located in Monson, Hampden County, Mass., was incorporated June 21st, 1804, and with its charter received from the State the endowment of a half township of Maine lands.

The State patronage was given in accordance with the educational policy established by the important resolves concerning Academies passed Feb. 27th, 1797. Westfield Academy had been endowed by the State, and was in successful operation, within the limits of what was then old Hampshire County, but another institution was deemed necessary midway between Westfield and Leicester, and there was a brisk competition between the towns of Brimfield and Monson for the location of the proposed Academy. The same amount of funds to erect the needful buildings was pledged in each town; but the legislature decided the question of location in favor of Monson, where the Academy was opened to the public by formal dedicatory services on the 23d of October, 1806, and the first Principal, Rev. Simeon Colton, D. D., then a recent graduate of Yale College, began his successful work as an instructor.

The governing body of the Academy is a close corporation, similar to most others granted at that period, and resembling, as they all do, the charters granted to colleges in having full powers of administration and oversight. The Founders named in the charter were fifteen in number, and sixty-six Trustees have since been elected as their successors.

PRESIDENTS OF THE CORPORATION.

	<i>Accessus.</i>	<i>Exitus.</i>
Rev. John Willard, D. D.,	1805	1807
Rev. Ephraim Ward,	1807	1815
Rev. Moses Warren,	1815	1818
Rev. Joseph Vaill, D. D.,	1818	1820
Rev. Alfred Ely, D. D.,	1820	1866
Rev. Joseph Vaill, D. D.,	1866	

PRINCIPALS.

<i>Accessus.</i>	<i>Graduates.</i>	<i>Exitus.</i>
1806 Rev. Simeon Colton, D. D.,	Yale	1807
1807 *Rev. Levi Collins, M. A.,	"	1813
1813 *Rev. Joy H. Fairchild, M. A.,	"	1816

Accessus.

	Graduates.	Exits.
1816 Rev. Frederick Gridley, M. A.,	Yale,	1818
1818 *Robert Riddle, M. D.,	"	1820
1820 *Rev. William W. Hunt, M. A.,	Williams,	1821
1821 Rev. Simeon Colton, D. D.,	Yale,	1830
1830 *Rev. William S. Porter, M. A.,	"	1832
1832 Rev. Sanford Lawton, B. A.,	"	1835
1835 Rev. David R. Austin, M. A.,	Union,	1839
1839 Rev. Charles Hammond, M. A.,	Yale,	1841
1841 *Rev. Samuel A. Fay, M. A.,	Amherst,	1842
1842 *Rev. James G. Bridgman, M. A.,	"	1813
1813 Rev. Frederic A. Fiske, M. A.,	"	1844
1845 Rev. Charles Hammond, M. A.,	Yale,	1852
1852 Rev. James Tufts, M. A.,	"	1859
1859 Rev. Wm. J. Harris, M. A.,	Williams,	1861
1861 Rev. Henry M. Grout, M. A.,	Yale,	1862
1863 Rev. Charles Hammond, M. A.,	"	1863

INSTRUCTORS IN THE ENGLISH DEPARTMENT.

1807 *Oliver Chapin, M. A.,	Williams,	1808
1821 *Jonathan Ely, M. A.,	Union,	1822
1822 *Rev. Ambrose Edson,	"	1823
1823 Hon. Samuel B. Woolworth, L.L. D.,	Hamilton,	1824
1824 Rev. William S. Burt, M. A.,	Union,	1825
1825 *Amos Pettingell, M. A.,	Yale,	1826
1826 *John W. Tenney, M. D.,	Brown,	1827
1827 Rev. Martyn Tupper,	New Jersey,	1823
1828 Arad Gilbert,	Yale,	1828
1828 Rev. John C. Hart,	"	1829
1829 *Hiram Holcomb,	"	1830
1830 Rev. Ezekiel Russell, D. D.,	Amherst,	1830
1830 John Nelson,	"	1831
1831 *George White, M. D.,	Yale,	1831
1832 Rev. Barnabas M. Fay, M. A.,	"	1832
1832 *Rev. John Bowers, B. A.,	"	1833
1833 Ebenezer K. Hunt, M. D.,	"	1834
1834 Rev. Elijah F. Rockwell, M. A.,	"	1835
1835 Samuel H. Austin, M. A.,	Union,	1836
1836 Rev. Robert Finley, B. A.,	Union,	1837
1837 Rev. Wm. M. Burchard, B. A.,	Yale,	1838
1838 Lucien Rice,	"	1839
1839 Rev. Henry C. Morse, M. A.,	"	1839
1839 Rev. Richard S. Storrs, Jr., D. D.,	Amherst,	1840
1840 *Rev. Samuel A. Fay, M. A.,	"	1841
1841 Rev. Charles G. Goddard, M. A.,	"	1842
1842 *Rev. James G. Bridgman, M. A.,	"	1843
1843 Rev. Lewis Green, M. A.,	"	1843
1843 *Rev. John E. Emerson, M. A.,	"	1843
1843 Edward D. Bangs, M. A.,	"	1844
1844 Flavel C. Selden,	"	1844
1844 Rev. Daniel H. Temple, M. A.,	"	1844
1844 Rev. William W. Whipple, M. A.,	"	1844
1845 Samuel J. Learned, M. A.,	"	1845
1845 *Rev. Jason Morse, B. A.,	"	1846
1846 *John Munn, B. A.,	Yale,	1848
1848 *Franklin L. F. Plympton,	"	1848
1848 Horace Taylor,	Amherst,	1848
1848 Rev. William C. Dickinson, M. A.,	"	1849
1849 John M. Emerson, M. A.,	"	1850
1850 Rev. Henry M. Tupper, B. A.,	Yale,	1850
1850 John H. Thompson, M. A.,	Amherst,	1851
1851 Rev. Augustus H. Carrier, M. A.,	Yale,	1852

Accessus.

1859	Wm. H. Bigelow, M. A.
1853	Joseph B. Holland, M. A.
1857	Rev. Edwin C. Bissell, M. A.
1857	Charles W. Seaton, B. A.
1858	*William A. Hazeltine, B. A.
1860	Samuel J. Storrs, B. A.
1863	Rev. Charles B. Sumner, B. A.
1865	Joseph H. Sawyer, B. A.
1866	Eugene Kingman, B. A.
1867	*John C. Terry, B. A.
1867	Samuel G. Stone, M. A.

Graduates.

Williams,	1853
Dartmouth,	1857
Amherst,	1857
Middlebury,	1858
Dartmouth,	1860
Amherst,	1861
Yale,	1865
Amherst,	1866
Yale,	1867
Amherst,	1867

Exitus.

" 1867

INSTRUCTORS IN THE FEMALE DEPARTMENT.

Accessus.

1819	Miss Hannah Ely,
1820	*Miss Caroline P. Dutch,
1822	" Mary Trumbull,
1830	" Clarissa Chapman,
1831	*Miss Julia M. Brown,
1831	*Miss Ann S. Langdon,
1832	*Miss Sarah Leonard,
1832	Miss Sarah Bridgman,
1833	Mrs. Melancia B. Newell,
1834	Miss Susan C. Whitney,
1835	*Mrs. Lucinda N. Austin,
1839	Miss Mary A. Sexton,
1840	" Susan C. Whitney,
1841	" Harriet Backus,
1841	" Mary A. Sexton,
1841	" Mary B. Lowell,†
1842	Charlotte P. Newman,
1842	" A. Elizabeth Stebbins,
1842	" Ann E. Houghton,†
1843	Catharine W. Bridgman,
1843	Maria J. Fiske,
1844	*Mary J. Humphrey,
1845	" A. Elizabeth Stebbins,
1845	" Mary B. Learned,
1846	" Mary E. Graves,
1846	*Esther M. Gould,
1847	" Delia C. Torrey,
1847	" Louisa M. Torrey,
1847	" Rebekah R. Browne,
1848	" Martha M. Dickinson,
1849	" Catharine Hitchcock,
1849	" Cynthia Fowler,

Exitus.

1820	1852	Miss Abby L. Bond,	1852
1821	1852	" Kate B. Arms,	1853
1823	1853	" Mary E. Warren,	1854
1831	1853	" Susan G. Ely,†	1853
1831	1853	" F. J. L. Wheelock,†	1853
1831	1854	" Mary A. Ranney,	1855
1832	1854	" Frances S. Ranney,†	1854
1832	1854	" Jennie L. Warren,†	1855
1834	1854	" Caroline E. Rice,†	1855
1835	1855	Mrs. Mary E. W. Tufts,	1856
1839	1855	Miss Martha Crosby,†	1855
1840	1856	" Sarah D. Hatch,†	1856
1841	1857	" Emma C. Ward,†	1857
1841	1857	" Ann C. Rogers,†	1857
1842	1858	Mrs. Mary E. W. Tufts,	1858
1841	1858	Miss Sarah Beebe,	1860
1842	1858	" Julia A. Nash,§	1858
1842	1858	" Mary J. Smith,§	1858
1842	1858	" Caroline E. Rice,†	1859
1843	1859	" Lucy A. Brigham,†	1860
1843	1859	" Josephine R. Dechus-	
1844	1844	ses,§	1861
1845	1845	" Sarah R. Burt,†	1859
1845	1846	" Lucy A. Perry,§	1861
1846	1846	" Catharine A. Shumway,	1861
1846	1847	" Kate B. Wilcox,	1864
1847	1847	" Louisa J. Clapp,	1865
1847	1847	Mrs. Carrie E. Converse,†	
1847	1848	Miss Kate B. Wilcox,	1867
1848	1849	" Miss Julie E. Smith,	
1849	1849	Mrs. Jennie L. Glynn,†	
1849	1852	Miss Julia A. Eastman.	

Exitus.

" 1867

The following is a complete list of the Trustees, with the date of their appointment and exit of office:—

TRUSTEES.

	Accessus.	Exitus.		Accessus.	Exitus.
Rev. John Willard, D. D.,	1804	1807	Rev. Richard S. Storrs,	1804	1815
Joel Norcross, Esq.,	1804	1846	Abel Goodell, Esq.,	1804	1810
Rufus Flynt, Esq.,	1804	1836	Gad Colton, Esq.,	1804	1823
Rev. Ephraim Ward,	1804	1816	Rev. Moses Warren,	1804	1821
Rev. Jesse Ives,	1804	1805	Rev. Ezra Witter,	1804	1814
Darius Munger, Esq.,	1804	1816	Rev. Moses Baldwin,	1804	1811
Dr. Ede Whitaker,	1804	1809	Aaron Merrick, Esq.,	1804	1811

† Teacher of Music.

‡ Teacher of Drawing.

§ Teacher of French.

<i>Decemus. Editus.</i>	<i>Decemus. Editus.</i>	<i>Decemus. Editus.</i>
Azel Utley, Esq., 1804 1809	Dea. Andrew W. Porter, 1834 1852	
Stephen Pyncheon, Esq., 1806 1822	Rev. Joseph Fuller, 1835 1837	
Rev. Alfred Ely, D. D., 1807 1866	Rev. Rodney G. Dennis, 1835 1843	
Abner Brown, Esq., 1809 1819	Rev. Eber Carpenter, 1837 1845	
Rév. Sylvester Burt, 1809 1812	Rev. George Trask, 1837 1844	
Dr. Ede Whitaker, 1810 1824	Charles Stearns, Esq., 1837 1857	
Rev. Simeon Colton, D. D., 1811 1822	Miner Grant, Esq., 1838 1850	
Samuel Willard, Esq., 1811 1816	Rev. Joseph Vaill, D. D., 1838 1844	
Benjamin Fuller, Esq., 1813 1818	Joseph L. Reynolds, Esq., 1841	
Rev. Joseph Vaill, D. D., 1814 1835	Rev. David R. Austin, 1843 1852	
Rev. Munson C. Gaylord, 1816 1830	Rev. Sam'l C. Bartlett, D. D., 1843 1846	
Dea. Abraham Haskell, 1816 1823	Rev. Moses K. Cross, 1843 1850	
Benning Mann, Esq., 1816 1831	Horatio Lyon, Esq., 1844	
Rev. Joy H. Fairchild, 1816 1821	Rev. John Bowers, 1844 1857	
Col. Israel E. Trask, 1819 1831	Rev. Abram Marsh, 1845	
Col. Amos Hamilton, 1819 1825	Rev. Geo. A. Calhoun, D. D., 1846 1855	
Rev. Eliakim Phelps, D. D., 1821 1827	Samuel S. Spaulding, Esq., 1847 1855	
Rev. Alvan Bond, D. D., 1821 1832	Rev. Charles B. Kittredge, 1847	
Rev. Aesel Nash, 1822 1832	Rev. Jason Morse, 1850 1861	
John Wyles, Esq., 1823 1841	William N. Flynt, Esq., 1852	
Rev. Hubbel Loomis, 1823 1829	Rev. Joseph Vaill, D. D., 1852	
Rev. Baxter Dickinson, D.D., 1823 1830	Albert Norcross, Esq., 1852 1864	
Hon. John Hall, 1824 1831	Rev. John W. Harding, 1855	
Timothy Packard, Esq., 1825 1861	Samuel M. Lane, Esq., 1855 1859	
Rev. Lyman Coleman, D. D., 1827 1832	Rev. Theron G. Colton, 1857 1867	
Rev. Thos. E. Vermilye, D.D., 1830 1835	Charles Merriam, Esq., 1857 1860	
Gen. Alanson Knox, 1831 1838	William Mixter, Esq., 1859 1867	
Rev. Martyn Tupper, 1831 1846	Alvan Smith, M. D., 1860	
Rev. Jonat'n B. Condit, D.D., 1831 1838	Charles H. Merrick, Esq., 1862	
Rev. John Wilder, 1831 1833	Cyrus W. Holmes, Jr., Esq., 1862	
Rev. Joseph S. Clark, D.D., 1832 1843	Alfred Norcross, Esq., 1864	
Hon. R. A. Chapman, LL.D., 1832	Rev. Ariel E. P. Perkins, 1867	
Jonathan Ely, Esq., 1832 1837	Rev. Charles Hammond, 1867	
Rev. Samuel Backus, 1832 1843		

In a general review of the Trusteeship, it appears that many of its members have been distinguished in professional life, and were also connected as trustees and teachers in colleges and higher seminaries. Their influence has always been felt in favor of thorough training and discipline, and hence the Academy through its entire history has fitted candidates for college as one of its important objects.

Dr. Willard, the first President of the corporation, was distinguished for classical attainments in his time, as was his brother, Dr. Joseph Willard, President of Harvard College, and it was his most cherished hope that the Academy might become a seat of sound learning, and as such extend its benefits to distant generations. Rev. Dr. Ely, who succeeded him in the Trusteeship and was for nearly half a century the President of the Board of Trust, was an officer in Princeton College, and a Trustee of Amherst for twenty-nine years. Rev. Dr. Vaill, his successor, was first appointed a Trustee of Monson Academy in 1814, and has been a Trustee of Amherst College ever since it was incorporated.

BENEFACTORS AND ENDOWMENTS.

Monson Academy has not been favored with the liberal benefactions of a few individuals, as the Phillips Academies at Andover and Exeter and Williston have been. Its endowments until recently have been very limited, and now they are far from being sufficient for the wants of the institution. From the first, however, the institution has not lacked the sympathy of devoted trustees and teachers, and several times the citizens of Monson have made generous contributions to meet pressing necessities.

The original building, which still remains though greatly enlarged, was erected by the aid of a general subscription. The Charity Fund was given in the same way. So also the Academy was repaired in 1845 at an expense of \$3,600, and in 1863, \$10,000 was added to the General Fund by the subscription of the people of Monson. At the same time the non-resident alumni and a few of the citizens raised nearly \$6,000 for repairs and the purchase of apparatus. The largest benefactor of the Academy was Joel Norcross, Esq., who in various ways gave \$7,250. Deacon Andrew W. Porter has given \$3,200, and Rufus Flynt, Esq., gave \$2,250, and the legacy of Rev. J. L. Merrick was \$2,000. The following is a schedule of benefactions, so far as ascertained:—

1804	State donation of half township of Maine lands,.....	\$10,000
1805	Donations of individuals to erect the Academy building,.....	3,200
1805	Gift of an acre of land for the Academy building,.....	100
1805	Donation of bell by Benjamin Fuller, Esq., of Monson,.....	100
1805	Donation of pair of globes by Ephraim Hyde, of Monson,.....	50
1805	Donation of surveyor's compass and chain by Isaac Fuller,.....	25
1810	Legacy of Abel Goodell, Esq., one of the Trustees,.....	200
1817	Donation to aid in building boarding-house by Joel Norcross, Esq.,.....	2,000
1817	Donation for building boarding-house by Rufus Flynt,.....	1,000
1822	Donation of six pews in the church, half acre of land, and \$250 in cash, the whole valued at \$750, by Joel Norcross,.....	750
1825	The Charity Fund given by subscription,.....	6,500
1826	Donation of Joel Norcross to the General Fund,.....	3,000
1826	Donation to the Library Fund by Rufus Flynt, Esq., and Timothy Packard, Esq., each \$250,.....	500
1840	Donation of Dea. A. W. Porter for repairs,.....	100
1845	Subscription for repairs and apparatus,.....	3,600
1847	Donation of a clock for the Hall by Orson D. Munn, Esq.,.....	40
1850	Donation by Mr. Alfred Norcross of two pieces of land adjoining the Academy grounds, to enlarge them and furnish the oppor- tunity to build the bank walls,.....	50
1850	Subscription of citizens for grading and inclosing grounds with granite walls,.....	300
1861	Legacy of Samuel T. Lane to the Charity Fund,.....	50
1863	Subscription to the General Fund by citizens of Monson,.....	10,000
1863	Subscription of the alumni for repairs,.....	4,000
1863	Subscription of citizens of Monson to build the south wing of the Academy,.....	850
1864	Donation of individuals for apparatus,.....	1,200
1866	Legacy of Rev. J. L. Merrick of the Persian scholarship,.....	2,000
1866	Donation of Horatio Lyon, Esq.,.....	500
Whole amount of benefactions,.....		\$50,115

Present value of the buildings, furniture and grounds is estimated at \$15,000
Amount of vested funds is \$25,000
Apparatus owned by the Academy previous to 1865 cost not less than. . . \$1,500
There was raised for the chemical and philosophical apparatus in 1865, \$1,200

DEPARTMENTS OF INSTRUCTION.

At first the Principal was the sole teacher. The second year an assistant was employed. This arrangement continued only one year, and the Principal afterwards was the sole teacher until 1819, when Miss Hannah Ely, the first female teacher, was appointed.

The School was managed till 1822 under two teachers, the Principal and a female assistant, when a male instructor was employed and ever after continued at the head of the English School. A distinct Female Department has been continued without interruption since 1839. From 1830 to 1839, a female teacher was employed one or two terms in the year, when the attendance required extra instruction.

The Department of Ornamental Branches has been taught by special teachers. Music and drawing by a teacher devoted wholly to those branches. Penmanship has been a specialty, and taught by courses of lessons at a stipulated price, as the teacher might agree with his pupils.

THE CLASSICAL DEPARTMENT

Has been under the instruction of the Principal, who has also had the discipline of the other departments chiefly in his hands. The course of instruction has been arranged to meet the conditions of admission to Yale and Amherst colleges, being changed according as the standard of requirements to those institutions has advanced. The amount of reading in the classics now required, is nearly one half less in extent, while the time required for preparation in the same studies is one-third more than it was twenty-five years ago. Then the whole of Virgil, all of Folsom's Cicero, the Latin Reader, and Sallust or Nepos, were required in Latin and in Greek; the four Gospels, Jacob's Reader in full, and one book in Homer. Now the Latin Lessons of Andrews, the Latin Reader, two books of Cæsar, seven orations of Cicero, the Bucolics, three Georgics, six books of the *Æneid*, Harkness' Greek Lessons, three books of the *Anabasis*, and three books in Homer are read. Formerly candidates for college studied arithmetic, English grammar and geography, to an extent sufficient to teach a common district school. Now in addition they must read two books in Playfair's Euclid, or an equivalent in some other geometry, and go as far as quadratics in algebra. Arnold's prose composition is studied as far as the 11th section.

THE ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

At first and until about 1820 consisted chiefly of those who studied but little more than the common English branches. When graduates of colleges were introduced as teachers, Day's Algebra was taught to the more advanced classes. Since 1840 nearly two-thirds of all the English pupils have studied algebra, and as many as one-fourth geometry. Surveying has been taught since the Academy was opened, at first in treatises like Flynt's, which did not require geometry as a preliminary study, save a few definitions—latterly in treatises like Davies' and Loomis', which are supplemental to elementary geometry. Natural philosophy has been taught since 1825 in regular classes. Since 1845 the school has had the advantage of a good apparatus to illustrate the principles of the ordinary text-books. Lectures on chemistry were given by Dr. Colton in a laboratory erected for his special use. At the present time, lectures on natural philosophy are given two terms in the year, and on chemistry in the Winter. Botany is taught in the Summer term. Physiology and astronomy are taught to classes formed occasionally.

English grammar is taught to nearly all the members of the academy, in some of its divisions or departments. Spelling is a daily exercise for all the students, in the use of a spelling-book designed for advanced classes. Quackenboss' lessons in rhetorical composition are studied by the advanced grammar classes. Declamations and compositions are required once in two weeks. A class for daily reading is formed nearly every term.

STUDIES OF THE FALL TERM, 1867.

In the CLASSICAL DEPARTMENT were six classes taught by the Principal, viz.: 1st, in *Virgil*, consisting of 7 pupils, who read and reviewed, in 13 weeks, the 3d, 4th, 5th and 6th books of the *Aeneid*.

2d, *Chemistry*, a class of 15 recited one-half of Youman's treatise in 13 weeks, and reviewed.

3d, *Cicero*, a class of 9 pupils, who read and reviewed 4 orations in 13 weeks.

4th, *Anabasis*, 7 in the class—read and reviewed 3d book and also 300 lines in 1st book of *Iliad* in 13 weeks.

5th, *Harkness' First Lessons*, 6 in the class—reviewed the first half of the book and half of the selections in advance in 13 weeks.

6th, *Roman History* in the Latin Reader, 7 in the class—read all the history and most of the geography in 13 weeks.

In the ENGLISH DEPARTMENT were six classes taught by the male assistant:—

1. *Virgil*, 8 in the class—read 1 book of the *Aeneid* in 13 weeks.

2. *Natural Philosophy*, 22 in the class—recited 140 pages of Wells from the beginning.

3. *Arithmetic*, interest and percentage rules, 15 in the class—advanced 50 pages in Eaton's Higher Arithmetic.

4. *Algebra*, intermediate class of 10 pupils—recited from simple equations in Greenleaf's treatise to quadratics.

5. Arithmetic advance, beginning at partnership and completing the book—a class of 5 pupils.

In the FEMALE DEPARTMENT, under the instruction of the Preceptress, seven classes:—

1. *Latin Beginners*, a class of 10 pupils advanced half through Andrews' Lessons in 13 weeks.

2. French, one class of 4 beginners, and one class of 4 pupils in Corinne.

3. *Arithmetic beginning at fractions* (in Eaton's Common School,) a class of 16 finished vulgar and decimal fractions in 13 weeks, and reviewed 50 pages.

4. *Advance English Grammar*, with Greene as a text-book, and Quackenboss' Lessons in English Composition—a class of 19.

In Quackenboss the class recited from page 23d on punctuation, 30 pages in 6½ weeks. They had a parsing lesson each day, and reviewed the etymology in Greene's larger Grammar. The recitation was one hour.

5. *Beginners in English Grammar*, a class of 11 using Greene's Introduction. They reviewed the etymology and syntax, and had each day a parsing exercise.

6. *Physical Geography* (Fitch's,) a class of six. They went through the book in the term of 13 weeks.

7. *Algebra beginners*, a class of 13 in Greenleaf went 112 pages from the beginning to equations of two or more unknown quantities.

Under the instruction of the ASSISTANT IN THE FEMALE DEPARTMENT, six classes recite:—

1. Geometry (Greenleaf's,) 12 in the class—1 section, 3 books beginners in 12 weeks—2 sections, 3 books advance in 11 weeks.

2. Algebra (Greenleaf's,) 4 in the class, advanced from quadratic equations, page 119, to logarithms, on page 313, in 13 weeks.

3. *Arithmetic, Fractions*, 4 in the class, consisting of 3 Japanese and 1 Spaniard.

4. *United States History*, 2 Japanese, who read the lessons to learn the pronunciation of words and their definitions, and recited the lessons in addition.

5. **READING AND SPELLING**, 3 Japanese in the class.

6. **NATURAL PHILOSOPHY**, 2 Japanese in the class. They advanced 120 pages in 13 weeks.

Recitations to an assistant pupil by a class consisting of four Japanese pupils in arithmetic, who recited one hour and a half.

There were two divisions in declamation and composition, in which all the male students took part. The ladies wrote compositions and repeated selections from English literature.

Rehearsals in elocution were given privately by one of the teachers to such as spoke in the chapel on Wednesday afternoons.

PATRONAGE.

Monson Academy from the first has been a mixed school. The proportion of gentlemen to ladies has been nearly two to one. For the last four years, the average yearly attendance of different pupils has been 175, of which number the average number of males has been 112, of females 63.

Two-thirds of the patronage is non-resident, most of which belongs to the classical department. The average yearly attendance of different pupils belonging to the English school for the last four years has been 100, of which just half have been non-residents of Monson.

The whole number of students connected with the academy can not now be ascertained, but it has been estimated at not less than

six thousand in 63 years. Of this number, five hundred at least entered college, and many studied law and medicine with no other literary preparation than what they received in the academy. Of the alumni of the academy who are college graduates, many have become distinguished in the professions of medicine and law. Two hundred have become ministers of the Gospel ;—many have been engaged in the work of education ;—two have been presidents of colleges ;—three, professors, one each at Harvard, Yale, and at the University of Michigan ;—eleven have been tutors at Yale, four at Amherst; three have been members of Congress ; one a Judge of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts, one, the Secretary of the Board of Education in Connecticut, Organizer and Commissioner of Public Schools in Rhode Island, and United States Commissioner of Education at Washington.

BOARDING ARRANGEMENTS.

A boarding-house was built in 1818, but not answering the purpose of its erection it was sold in 1832. Since then no common dormitories or boarding establishments have been furnished. This fact accounts for the comparatively limited patronage of the school. The students find homes in private families, and the prices have varied according to the accommodations received and the state of the markets—ranging from \$1,00 a week in 1806 to \$5,00 or \$6,00 in 1867.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION.

The object of the Institution has always been to maintain a healthy moral influence by the sanctions of religion freely and earnestly impressed on the students. The Academy has always been under the control of Trustees who were Congregationalists, and of the same faith were nearly all its benefactors and teachers. And yet no offensive discrimination has ever been made in regard to the advantages of the Institution, nor is it known that any student of another denomination has complained of any lack of interest, or of interference with his faith, on the part of trustees or teachers.

Regular attendance on public worship is required on the Sabbath, where the pupils may desire or their parents direct.

The charity funds of the academy were all given for the advantage of young men preparing for the Gospel ministry, without any denominational restrictions by the donors.

GOVERNMENT OR DISCIPLINE.

The discipline as well as the instruction of the School is placed

under the care of the Principal, who nominates his assistants, subject to the approval of the trustees. The government of the School is in charge of the Principal, the assistants being responsible only for the order of their own rooms and the duty of reporting instances of disorder to the Principal. The penalties are admonition, suspension, and expulsion. Corporal punishment was in former times made use of occasionally, but for many years has been very rarely inflicted. The pupils have mostly passed the period of boyhood, and expulsion is resorted to as the severest punishment necessary in such a school.

THE LINOPHILIAN SOCIETY

Was established in 1819, and is one of the oldest debating societies in New England. It has a hall fitted up in good style, with every convenience for the ordinary meetings of its members, which are held every week on Wednesday evenings. Once a term, a public meeting is held in the chapel. The society has an excellent library of 600 volumes kept in a room furnished for that purpose. The students have always been greatly interested in this society and its library.

THE FLYNT AND PACKARD LIBRARY

Consists of nearly 700 volumes of choice books, chiefly books of reference in every branch of instruction taught in the academy. This library is the result of a donation of \$500, the income of which is annually expended. A tax of 25 cents a term is required of those who choose to avail themselves of its advantages, which is expended in rebinding and replacing books injured or lost. It is one of the best school libraries in the country.

TUITION.

From 1806 to 1822, tuition was at the rate of \$10.00 per annum, or \$2.50 per quarter, all studies being charged alike. A contingent charge was made of 17 cents a term, and 50 cents for wood in the Winter. From 1822 to 1831, the tuition was at the rate of \$12 per annum for English studies and \$4 for classical, with a contingent charge of 17 cents per term, and a charge for wood of from 17 cents to 34 cents a term. From 1832 to 1854, the tuition was from \$14 to \$18 per annum, with no charge for contingencies. From 1854 to 1867, the tuition was from \$17 to \$21 per annum, with a contingent charge of 50 cents per term.

The school year until 1848 was divided into quarters of 11 weeks each. From 1848 to 1862, the school year of 42 weeks—the Fall

term of 12 weeks and the Summer and Winter 15 each. The year now consists of 40 weeks—the Summer and Fall terms each 13 weeks and the Winter 14 weeks.

Tuition in music has been paid for special courses without regard to term divisions of time. The same is true of drawing and other ornamental branches. French has been rated generally as a classical study, but sometimes paid for as an extra or ornamental branch.

THE PRESENT CONDITION AND PROSPECTS OF THE ACADEMY.

At no past period of its history has the condition of the academy been so promising as it is now. With limited funds and limited accommodations, it has never attained a large place in the public eye as a school great in numbers, when compared with others more highly favored in endowments and public dormitories. And yet owing to a wise and prudent trusteeship, the School has been sustained with a uniform patronage, and its alumni have done credit to the place of their youthful studies.

MASSACHUSETTS POLICY OF INCORPORATED ACADEMIES.

THE earliest schools in Massachusetts, technically known as Free, Grammar, or Town schools, imparted secondary as well as elementary instruction; but the needs of families not residing within towns on which such schools were made obligatory by law, led to the establishment of a class of institutions known as Academies, the public policy of which is set forth in the following document:—

At the General Court of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, held on the 25th day of January, 1797,

ORDERED, That the secretary be, and he hereby is, directed to cause the report of a committee of both houses on the subject of grants of land to sundry academies within this Commonwealth, to be printed with the resolves which shall pass the general court at the present session.

And be it further ordered, That the grants of land specified in said report shall be made to the trustees of any association within the respective counties mentioned in said report, where there is no academy at present instituted, who shall first make application to the general court for that purpose: *provided*, they produce evidence that the sum required in said report is secured to the use of such institution: and *provided*, that the place contemplated for the situation of the academy be approved of by the legislature.

Report on the subject of Academies at Large. Feb. 27, 1797.

The committee of both Houses, to whom was referred the subject of academies at large, and also sundry petitions for grants of public lands to particular academies, having accordingly considered the subject on general principles, and likewise the several petitions referred to them, submit the following report:

On a general view of this subject, the committee are of opinion that the system hitherto pursued, of endowing academies with State lands ought to be continued—but with several material alterations; first, that no academy, (at least not already erected,) ought to be encouraged by government, unless it have a neighborhood to support it of at least thirty or forty thousand inhabitants, not accommodated in any manner by any other academies, by any college or school answering the purpose of an academy; secondly, that every such portion of the Commonwealth ought to be considered as equally entitled to grants of State lands to these institutions, in aid of private donations; and thirdly, that no State lands ought to be granted to any academy, but in aid of permanent funds; secured by towns and individual donors: and therefore, previous to any such grant of State lands, evidence ought to be produced that such funds are legally secured, at least adequate to erect and repair the necessary buildings, to support the corporation, to procure and preserve such apparatus and books as may be necessary, and to pay a part of the salaries of the preceptors.

In attending to the particular cases, the committee find that fifteen academies have already been incorporated in this Commonwealth; also Derby School, which serves all the general purposes of an academy, but that the academy at Marblehead probably will only serve the purposes of a town school. And the committee are of opinion that the three colleges established and endowed by the State and private donors, will serve many of the purposes of academies in their respective neighborhood, so that if four or five academies more shall be allowed in those parts of the Commonwealth where they may be most wanted, there will be one academy to every 25,000 inhabitants, and probably, therefore, they must struggle with many difficulties until the wealth and population of the State shall be very considerably increased; for however useful colleges and academies may be for many purposes, yet it is very obvious that the great body of the people will and must educate their children in town district schools, where they can be boarded or supported by their parents.

The committee find that of the fifteen academies already incorporated, seven

of them have had grants of State lands, that at Fryeburgh of 15,000 acres, and the other six, at Machias, Hallowell, Berwick, Marblehead, Taunton, and Leicester, one township each. To extend this plan of a township to each academy to those academies already allowed, and to those which from local circumstances may be justly claimed, would require the grants of twelve or thirteen townships more. The committee think this number too large, and therefore propose half a township of six miles square, of the unappropriated lands in the district of Maine, to be granted to each academy having secured to it the private funds of towns and individual donors before described, to be laid out or assigned (with the usual reservations) by the committee for the sale of eastern lands.

Of the eight academies already incorporated and not endowed by the Commonwealth, part appear to have been endowed by towns and individuals; and as to part, no satisfactory evidence is produced of such endowments.

It appears that Dummer's Academy, in Newbury, has legally secured to it a permanent fund for its support, by a private donor, to the amount of \$6,000; and that Phillips Academy, in Andover, has a fund something larger, secured in like manner; that each of these academies was established in a proper situation.

It appears that the academies in Groton and Westford are about seven miles apart, both in the county of Middlesex, and with a neighborhood perhaps not so adequate as could be wished to the support of two; that each of them has received the donations of towns and individuals to the amount of about \$2,500, and that each of them is now much embarrassed for want of funds, but both of these academies have been incorporated and countenanced by the legislature, and must be considered as fully adequate for the county of Middlesex.

On the whole the committee propose an immediate grant of half a township of the description aforesaid, to each of these four academies. As to the academies at Portland, Westfield and New Salem, and in the county of Plymouth, the committee propose that half a township, of the description aforesaid, be granted to each of them: *provided*, each of them shall, within three years, produce evidence that there is a permanent fund legally secured to each by town or individual donors, to the amount of \$3,000, and that the Act establishing an Academy in the town of Plymouth be repealed, and an Act be passed establishing an Academy in the county of Plymouth, on the principles of the petition from that county; and that half a township of land be granted to each of the counties of Barnstable, Nantucket, Norfolk, and Dukes County, and Hancock, for the purpose of an Academy; *provided* they shall, within three years, severally furnish evidence that funds are secured by towns or individual donors to the amount of \$3,000, for the support of each of the said academies.

The Joint Standing Committee on Education (Hon. Charles W. Upham, *Chairman*), in a Report dated March 30, 1859—after reciting the above report, as proceeding from a Committee “composed of leading and experienced men, of whom Nathan Dane of Beverly was one,”—“and as published by the General Court, containing most decisive and emphatic annunciation of the policy of the State”—remark:

The following principles appear to have been established, as determining the relations of academies to the Commonwealth. They were to be regarded as in many respects and to a considerable extent, public schools; as a part of an organized system of public and universal education; as opening the way, for all the people, to a higher order of instruction than the common schools can supply, and as a complement to them, towns, as well as the Commonwealth, were to share, with individuals, the character of founders, or legal visitors of them. They were to be distributed, as nearly as might be, so as to accommodate the different districts or localities of the State, according to a measure of population, that is, 25,000 individuals. In this way they were to be placed within the reach of the whole people, and their advantages secured, as equally and effectively as possible, for the common benefit.

VII. EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY.

EGERTON RYERSON, D. D., LL. D.

CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION FOR UPPER CANADA SINCE 1844.

THE REVEREND EGERTON RYERSON, (or, as he was baptized, Adolphus Egerton Ryerson,) was born in the township of Charlotte-ville, near Lake Erie, London (afterward the Talbot) District, (now the County of Norfolk) on the 24th of March, 1803.

His father, Colonel Joseph Ryerson, a United Empire Loyalist in the British service at the time of the American Revolution, was born in New Jersey. He first joined as a cadet, and was one of the five hundred and fifty loyal volunteers who went to Charleston, South Carolina. For his good conduct in bearing dispatches one hundred and ninety-six miles into the interior, he was promoted to a lieutenancy in the Prince of Wales' Volunteers by Sir Guy Carleton, (Lord Dorchester.) Subsequently he was engaged in six battles, and was once wounded. At the peace of 1783 he was exiled, and went to New Brunswick, thence to Canada—he and his family enduring very great hardship in penetrating into the interior of the then unbroken wilderness of Canada. He settled in Charlotteville, and lived there about seventy years. In the war of 1812 he and his three sons again joined the British standard, and acquitted themselves bravely. During his life he held various appointments under the crown. He died in 1854, at the venerable age of ninety-four years, after having enjoyed his half-pay as a British officer for the unprecedented period of seventy years!

Doctor Ryerson was the fourth son of Colonel Ryerson, and was named after two British officers who were intimate friends of his father. His youth was passed in his native county; and at its Grammar School he received the rudiments of his early education. With Mr. Law, the Master of the Gore District Grammar School at Hamilton, (at the head of Lake Ontario) he studied the classics. As the Grammar Schools were the only public schools at that time in existence in the country, (and they had only just then been established) they were in the rural counties very elementary in their character, and did not profess to teach more than the mere rudiments of an

English education. The young and ardent student, as Doctor Ryerson then was, (and has so continued during his life-time) not content with the superficial knowledge of grammar which he obtained at school, prevailed upon his father to allow him to go from home for six months to attend a grammar class which had been established in the county town on that specific subject.

Doctor Ryerson's habits of study at this time were characteristic of his practice in after life. When at school he had entirely mastered the theory and principles of English grammar, and had learned all the rules and explanations, and in fact nearly the whole book by rote, yet having had no one to explain the theory or to apply the principles of the text-book, it was not until he attended the grammar class that he was able fully to comprehend the beauty, flexibility and power of the language. He also at this time prepared and wrote out a digest of Murray's English Grammar, in two volumes, Kame's Elements of Criticism, and Blair's Rhetoric and a Latin Grammar. He was an indefatigable student; and so thoroughly did he ground himself in these and kindred subjects thus early in life and under most adverse circumstances, that in his subsequently active career as a writer and controversialist he ever evinced a power and readiness with his tongue and pen which has often astonished those who were unacquainted with the laborious thoroughness of his previous preparation.

Doctor Ryerson's experience as a teacher did not extend beyond the grammar school of his native county. At the age of sixteen he was appointed usher, or assistant teacher, to his eldest brother, George, (who had received his training at Union College, Schenectady) and who succeeded his brother-in-law, Mr. Mitchell, on his appointment by the Governor to the judgeship of the county. During the absence of his brother George, the charge of the school devolved upon the youthful usher. Having thus the management of boys and girls who were his companions, and many of them several years his senior, his firmness, tact and decision were frequently put to the test, but he acquitted himself well, and the experience thus gained was afterwards turned to higher account.

Doctor Ryerson's mother was a woman distinguished for her clearness of intellect, for her strong religious principles, and for her kindness of disposition. Egerton was her favorite son; and she sought to inculcate in his ardent mind those higher Christian principles and motives which lie at the basis of all true excellence of character. Nor was her motherly tenderness with its persuasive teaching and example lost upon her distinguished son.

Three of his brothers, George, John and William, having entered the ministry of the Methodist Episcopal Church, Egerton, with a glowing heart and ardent zeal, after due preparation, also followed their example. On his twenty-second birth-day (24th March, 1825) he was ordained deacon by the venerable Bishop Hedding. It being Easter, his first sermon was on the appropriate subject of the resurrection of our Redeemer.

He was first stationed on the Niagara circuit, extending for many miles, then on the Yonge Street circuit, including the town of York, (now Toronto) and in succession at the River Credit (Indian Mission) Toronto, Cobourg, Ancaster, etc. Circuits in those days rarely embraced a section of country much less than from forty or fifty miles in extent, with the scattered settlers few and far between. Doctor Ryerson's diary at this time shows how devotedly he applied himself to the culture of his mind, although his valise often contained the chief part of his library, and the back of his horse frequently afforded him the only place for study.

Doctor Ryerson put forth his first literary effort in 1827; and by it at once established his reputation as a skillful and able controversial writer. The occasion arose out of some unjust remarks upon various religious bodies, which were contained in a published sermon which had been preached by the Reverend Doctor Strachan (the late venerable Bishop of Toronto) on the death of Bishop Mountain of Quebec. Doctor Ryerson replied through the press in a series of trenchant letters, which were afterwards collected and reprinted in a pamphlet, under the title of "Claims of Churchmen and Dissenters in Upper Canada brought to the Test." In the same year, while stationed at Cobourg, he also replied (in a series of letters addressed to Doctor Strachan) to the aspersions cast upon the Methodists and other religious bodies, in a speech delivered by the same gentleman in the Legislative Council of Upper Canada in March of that year. These letters were also republished in pamphlet form.

In 1829, (the year after the American General Conference had constituted the Canada branch a separate annual conference) Doctor Ryerson took a prominent part in the establishment of the *Christian Guardian* newspaper, as the organ of the Conference, and as a channel of reply to such attacks as were made by Dr. Strachan upon that body in 1828. He was its first editor, and continued so for several years. In 1833 he was deputed by the Conference to go to England and take part in the negotiations which were set on foot for the formation of a union between the English and Canadian Conferences.

This union took place in 1833-4, and the Episcopal form of church government among the Methodists in Canada was changed to that of the Wesleyans in England.

In 1835 Doctor Ryerson was again deputed to proceed to England to obtain a royal charter, and to collect subscriptions for an excellent Academy which the Conference had lately established at Cobourg. In these objects he was, after much labor, highly successful. He also prevailed upon the home government to obtain from the Canadian Legislature, (even against Sir F. B. Head's wishes) aid to the extent of upwards of \$16,000 for the Academy. In the two years, during which Doctor Ryerson remained in England on this mission, he had abundant opportunities, of which he freely availed himself, of becoming acquainted with the public men and institutions of the mother country. He also, at the same time, rendered essential service to his native land in exposing (through the columns of the *London Times*, under the signature of "A Canadian,") the unpatriotic and revolutionary character of Messrs. Hume and Roebuck's agitation on Canadian politics in England. He also wrote letters to Canada (for publication in the *Christian Guardian*) containing his "impressions" on various social, political and clerical questions in England, which attracted much attention, and created a good deal of discussion.

On his return to Canada early in 1837, on the eve of the eventful crisis of the rebellion, he was again appointed editor of the *Guardian*; and in that position he rendered essential service to the cause of social order and political and religious liberty in the province. In 1839 Doctor Ryerson addressed a series of ten letters to the present Chief Justice of Upper Canada on the celebrated "Clergy (Land) Reserve Question, as a matter of History, a question of Law, and a subject of Legislation." These letters were distinguished by much learning, research and legal acumen, and were extensively read and often quoted in subsequent discussions on the subject in Upper Canada.

In 1840 he was again deputed with his brother William to go to England to represent the Canadian Conference in its efforts to restore the union which the English Wesleyan Conference had for various reasons broken off.

In 1840 an act of incorporation was obtained from the then recently united Canadian Legislature, erecting Upper Canada Academy into a University under the name and style of the "University of Victoria College at Cobourg." Doctor Ryerson (who then received the title of D. D. from the Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut,) was unanimously chosen its first president, and for four years labored assiduously to promote its best interests.

In the address of the Reverend Doctor Green, President of the Conference, at the ceremony of the Inauguration of the Principal of the College, Doctor Ryerson's qualifications for this important post are thus referred to—and he was mentioned as "a gentleman of a sound, discriminating mind, of general knowledge, capable of taking a statesmanlike view of great and important questions, favorably known in the province, having some experience in the art of teaching, and of indomitable, untiring perseverance in accomplishing his objects of pursuit." Doctor Ryerson's own address on his inauguration as principal, was a comprehensive, eloquent and practical exposition of the "nature and advantage of an English and Liberal Education." Incidentally if not prophetically, he had in his own inaugural address referred to the system of public instruction just then introduced into the country, and which was afterwards destined in his own hands to become all that he had predicted for it. "A foundation," said he, "for a common school system in this province has been laid by the Legislature, which *I believe will at no distant day, exceed in efficiency any yet established on the American continent.*"

The highly practical and statesmanlike views which Doctor Ryerson held on this important question, pointed him out among the public men of Canada as eminently qualified to control and direct this great national work. In 1844, therefore, after three years' experience of the working of the new system of public education, Doctor Ryerson was appointed its superintendent by His Excellency the Governor General, with an understanding that he would re-lay the entire foundation of the system, and establish it on a wider and more enduring basis. The instructions which he received on his formal appointment were contained in the following words:

"His Excellency has no doubt that you will give your best exertions to your new office, and that you will lose no time in devoting yourself to devising such measures as may be necessary to provide proper school books; to establish the most efficient system of instruction; to elevate the character of both teachers and schools; and to encourage every plan and effort to educate and improve the youthful mind of the country; and His Excellency feels assured that your endeavors in matters so important to Western Canada, will be alike satisfactory to the public, and creditable to yourself."

After detailing the steps which he had taken to carry these instructions into effect, Doctor Ryerson in his report to Lord Cathcart, the Governor General, March, 1846, thus defines his views upon this all important subject. (We quote a few passages only.)

"By Education, I mean not the mere acquisition of certain arts, or of certain branches of knowledge, but that instruction and discipline which qualify and dispose the subjects of it for their appropriate duties and employments of life, as Christians, as persons in business, and also as members of the civil community in which they live.

"The basis of an educational structure adapted to this end should be as broad as the population of the country; and its loftiest elevation should equal the highest demands of the learned professions, adapting its gradation of schools to the wants of the several classes of the community, and to their respective employments or professions, the one rising above the other—the one conducting to the other; yet each complete in itself for the degree of education it imparts; a character of uniformity as to fundamental principles pervading the whole: the whole based upon the principles of Christianity, and uniting the combined influence and support of the government and the people.

"The branches of knowledge which it is essential that all should understand, should be provided *for all*, and taught to all; should be brought within the reach of the most needy, and forced upon the attention of the most careless. The knowledge required for the scientific pursuit of mechanics, agriculture and commerce, must needs be provided to an extent corresponding with the demand, and the exigencies of the country; while to a more limited extent are needed facilities for acquiring the higher education of the learned professions."*

With a view to give a summary sketch of Doctor Ryerson's exposition of the system of Public Instruction which he desired to establish in Upper Canada, we insert the following additional extracts from his report to the Governor General. After combating the objection which then existed in some quarters to the establishment of a thorough system of primary and industrial education, commensurate with the population of the country, as contemplated by the Government, and as here proposed, he proceeds to say:

"The first feature then of our Provincial System of Public Instruction, should be *universality*; and that in respect to the poorest classes of society. It is the poor indeed that need the assistance of the Government, and they are proper objects of its special solicitude and care; the rich can take care of themselves. The elementary education of the whole people must therefore be an essential element in the legislative and administrative policy of an enlightened and

*Report on a System of Public Elementary Education for Upper Canada. Published by order of the Legislative Assembly. Second Edition; Montreal, 1847. pp. 9, 10.

beneficent government. Nor is it less important to the efficiency of such a system that it should be *practical* than that it should be universal. The mere acquisition or even the general diffusion of knowledge, without the requisite qualities to apply that knowledge in the best manner, does not merit the name of education. Much knowledge may be imparted and acquired without any addition whatever to the capacity for the business of life. * * * History presents us with even University Systems of Education (so called) entirely destitute of all practical character; and there are elementary systems which tend as much to prejudice and pervert, not to say corrupt, the popular mind, as to improve and elevate it."

"The state of society, then, no less than the wants of our country, requires that every youth of the land should be trained to industry and practice, whether that training be extensive or limited.

"Now education thus practical, includes religion and morality; secondly, the development to a certain extent of all our faculties; thirdly, an acquaintance with several branches of elementary knowledge."

"By religion and morality, I do not mean sectarianism in any form, but the general system of truth and morals taught in the Holy Scriptures. Sectarianism is not morality. To be zealous for a sect and to be conscientious in morals are widely different. To inculcate the peculiarities of a sect and to teach the fundamental principles of religion and morality, are equally different."

"I can aver, from personal experience and practice, as well as from a very extended inquiry on this subject, that a much more comprehensive course of biblical and religious instruction can be given than there is likely to be opportunity for in elementary schools, without any restraint on the one side, or any tincture of sectarianism on the other—a course embracing the entire *history of the Bible*, its *institutions*, *cardinal doctrines* and *morals*, together with the *evidences* of its *authenticity*."

"With the proper cultivation of the moral feelings, and the formation of moral habits, is intimately connected the corresponding *development of all the other faculties, both intellectual and physical*. The great object of an efficient system of instruction should be, not the communication of so much knowledge, but the development of the faculties. Much knowledge may be acquired without any increase of mental power; nay, with even an absolute diminution of it."

The foregoing is only a brief summary of Doctor Ryerson's expositions of the principles of the system of public instruction adapted

to Canada which are discussed in the first sixty pages of his report. He next devotes eighty-eight pages to a consideration of fifteen branches of instruction which he considered should be taught, or provided for if not taught, in all of the schools. The concluding fifty pages are devoted to the subject of the machinery of the system under the heads of *kinds of schools, teachers, text-books, control and inspection, and individual efforts.*

Notwithstanding the zeal and ability with which Doctor Ryerson had collected and arranged his facts, analyzed the various systems of education in Europe, (chiefly in Germany) and America, and fortified himself with the opinions of all the most eminent educationists in those countries, yet his projected system for Canada was fiercely assailed, and was vehemently denounced as embodying in it the very essence of "Prussian despotism." Still with indomitable courage he persevered in his plans and at length succeeded in 1846 in inducing the legislature to pass a Common School Act, which he had drafted in pursuance of the recommendation in his report. The leading features of that measure may be briefly summed up under the four following heads:

1. The machinery of the system was mainly adapted to the circumstances of Upper Canada, from the school laws of the Middle United States.
2. The method of supporting the schools by a uniform rate upon property, was adopted from the New England States.
3. The Normal and Model Schools, (established in 1847) were projected after those in operation in Germany.
4. The school text-books were adopted from the series then in use in Ireland, as acceptable to both Protestants and Roman Catholics.

In regard to this latter feature of the Canadian system, and in justification of the exclusion from our schools of American text-books, it may be proper to give the following explanation of that step from the pen of Doctor Ryerson himself. He says:

"American school books are unlike the school books of any other enlightened people, so far as I have the means of knowing. The school books of Germany, France and Great Britain, contain nothing hostile to the institutions or derogatory to the character of any other nation. I know not of a single English school book in which there is an allusion to the United States not calculated to excite a feeling of respect for their inhabitants or government. It is not so with American school books. With very few exceptions, they abound in statements and allusions prejudicial to the institutions and character

of the British nation. It may be said that such statements and allusions are 'few and far between,' and exert no injurious influence upon the minds of children and their parents. But surely no school book would be tolerated which should contain statements and allusions, 'few and far between,' against the character and institutions of our common Christianity. And why should books be authorized or used in our schools inveighing against the character and institutions of our common country? And as to the influence of such publications, I believe, though silent and imperceptible in its operations, it is more extensive and powerful than is generally supposed. I believe such books are one element of powerful influence against the established government of the country. From facts which have come to my knowledge, I believe it will be found, on inquiry, that in precisely those parts of Upper Canada where United States school books had been used most extensively, there the spirit of the insurrection in 1837 and 1838 was most prevalent. I am sure the Americans would not sanction the use of text-books in their schools which contained attacks upon and statements and allusions derogatory to their institutions and government."

In 1849 the provincial administration favorable to Doctor Ryerson's views went out of office, and those opposed to him came in. A member of the cabinet hostile to him having concocted a singularly crude and cumbrous school bill, aimed to oust Doctor Ryerson from office, it was without examination or discussion passed into a law. Doctor Ryerson at once called the attention of the government (at the head of which was the late lamented Lord Elgin) to the impracticable and unchristian character of the bill, as it had formally excluded the Bible from the schools. The late Honorable Robert Baldwin, C. B., Attorney General (the nestor of Canadian politicians, and a truly Christian man) was so convinced of the justness of Doctor Ryerson's views and remonstrance, that he took the unusual course of advising His Excellency to suspend the operation of the new act until Doctor Ryerson could prepare a draft of bill on the basis of the repealed law, embodying in it, additional to the old bill, the result of his own experience of the working of the system up to that time. The result was that a law was passed in 1850 admirably adapted to the excellent municipal system of Canada, so popular in its character and comprehensive in its provisions and details, that it is still (in a consolidated form) the statute under which the public common schools of Upper Canada are established and maintained.

There was one question, the agitation of which had for many years caused a good deal of disturbance to the school system, but which

was set at rest in 1863. This question was the right of the Roman Catholics to establish schools of their own, separate from the public common schools, but nevertheless aided from the parliamentary grant for education, according to the average attendance of pupils at the schools. The principle of these schools was fully conceded in the first Canadian School Bill which was passed in 1841, the year of the legislative union of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada. It was subsequently modified in 1843, 1847, and 1850, and, (after much bitter agitation) in 1853, 1855, and finally in 1863. In the resolutions for the confederation of the British North American provinces, agreed to at Quebec by representatives from all of these provinces, and adopted by the Canadian Legislature in 1865, the right of the Roman Catholics in regard to these separate schools were confirmed as follows:—"The local legislature of each province shall have power to make laws respecting education; saving the rights and privileges which the Protestant or Catholic minority in both Canadas may possess as to their denominational schools, at the time when the confederated union goes into operation."

In 1853, after a good deal of delay and discussion, Doctor Ryerson prevailed upon the legislature to revise the grammar school law of the province, which had remained in the statute book accomplishing comparatively little good since 1807—1839. Even then (in 1853) the principle of local taxation for these schools, as applied to the common schools, was not adopted by the legislature in regard to the grammar schools. For twelve years longer these schools continued to languish. In 1865 the grammar school law was still further improved, and a higher standard of education adopted, but as yet the principle of local taxation for the support of these schools has been but partially concurred in by the legislature, and embodied in the amended act. It provides, however, that a sum equal to the half of the legislative grant (independent of school fees) shall, as a condition of receiving the grant, be raised from "local sources," *i. e.*, by rate, subscription, municipal grant or otherwise.

In 1850, Doctor Ryerson made his second educational tour in Europe, and while in England he made preliminary arrangements for establishing the Library, Map and Apparatus system in connection with his department, which was not fully completed until 1854.

In 1854 the present system of free public school libraries was fully established by Doctor Ryerson in Upper Canada, aided by the Council of Public Instruction. The list of approved books includes about 8000 volumes, embracing works in every department of human

knowledge and learning. From this extensive list the local school authorities are authorized to make selections. The same system was also adapted to the supply of the schools with approved prize books, maps, charts, apparatus, and other requisites; and the legislature has granted the necessary funds to enable the Educational Department to do so. The principle upon which these funds are made available for the benefit of the schools is as follows:—Whenever a municipal or school corporation contributes a sum of money for the purchase of library or prize books, maps, apparatus, etc., at the Educational Depository, the Department contributes an equal amount, and supplies those corporations with articles (at a reduced rate of from 20 to 25 per cent. below retail cost) to the value of the sum thus augmented, or rather doubled. Thus a premium is held out to local exertion and liberality, and each locality is aided according to its works. By Departmental regulation nothing is supplied from the Depository to private parties, but only to municipal or school corporations.*

In 1855, Doctor Ryerson, while in England, took steps, as authorized by law, to establish Meteorological Stations in connection with the County Grammar Schools of Upper Canada, aided by Colonel Lefroy—for many years director of the Provincial Magnetical Observatory at Toronto—he selected sets of suitable instruments, (which were duly tested at the Kew Observatory,) and shortly afterwards several of these stations were established. In 1865, the law on the subject having been amended, twelve stations were selected and put into efficient working order. These stations are situated at various points on the margin of Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, Simcoe, Bay of Quinte, River St. Lawrence, and the Upper Ottawa river; the rest are situated in central places inland.

In 1857, Doctor Ryerson made his third educational tour in Europe; and before returning to Canada, he procured at Antwerp, Brussels, Florence, Rome, Paris, and London, an admirable collection of copies of paintings by the old masters, statues, busts, etc., besides various other articles, for an Educational Museum in connection with the Department. This Museum was founded after the example of what is being done in England by the Imperial Government as a part of the system of popular education—regarding the indirect, as scarcely secondary to the direct, means of training the minds and forming the taste and character of the people. It consists of a collection of school apparatus for Common and Grammar Schools, of Models of Agricultural and other implements, of specimens of the

*For further details in regard to some other features of the Upper Canada public school system and its essential features of difference from the American system, see *American Journal of Education* for 1866, Vol. I, pp. 191-201. For Statistics, see Vol. XIII, 649-51.

Natural History of the Country, Casts of Antique and Modern Statues and Busts, &c., selected from the principal Museums of Europe, including busts of some of the most celebrated characters in English and French History; also copies of some of the works of the great Masters of the Dutch, Flemish, Spanish, and especially of the Italian Schools of Painting. These objects of art are *labelled*, for the information of those who are not familiar with the originals, and a descriptive historical catalogue of them can be purchased at the Museum. In the evidence given before the Select Committee of the British House of Commons, it is justly stated that, "the object of a National Gallery is to improve the public taste, and to afford a more refined description of enjoyment to the mass of the people;" and the opinion is at the same time strongly expressed, that as "people of taste going to Italy constantly bring home beautiful modern copies of beautiful originals," it is desirable, even in England, that those who have not the opportunity or means of travelling abroad, should be enabled to see, in the form of an accurate copy, some of the celebrated works of Raffaelle and other great Masters; an object no less desirable in Canada than in England. What has been thus far done in this branch of public instruction, is in part the result of a small annual sum, which, by the liberality of the Legislature, has been placed at the disposal of the Chief Superintendent of Education, out of the Upper Canada share of the School Grants, for the purpose of improving school architecture and appliances, and to promote arts, science and literature by means of models, objects and publications, collected in a Museum in connection with this Department, and arranged under the following heads:—

- I. SCULPTURE: 1. Antiques. 2. Modern. 3. Architectural.
- II. PAINTINGS: 1. Italian School. 2. Flemish School. 3. Dutch School. 4. Miscellaneous Dutch and Flemish. 5. German School. 6. French School. 7. Spanish School.
- III. ENGRAVINGS: 1. On Steel and Copper. 2. Lithographs.
- IV. HISTORY OF ART, &c.: 1. In French and Italian. 2. In English.
- V. OTHER OBJECTS: 1. Illustrations of Mediaeval History. 2. Maps and Plans in Relief. 3. Specimens of Natural History. 4. Geological Specimens. 5. Models of Agricultural Implements. 6. Philosophical Models and School Apparatus.

In 1858-60, Doctor Ryerson took a leading part in a discussion in the newspapers and before a Committee of the House of Assembly in favor of legislative grants to the denominational colleges of Upper

Canada. His views in regard to such colleges, as forming part of the public educational system of the province may be gathered from the following extracts from his writings on this subject. He says:—

"I lay it down as a fundamental principle, that religious instruction must form a part of the education of the youth of our country, and that that religious instruction must be given by the several religious persuasions to their youth respectively. The Common Schools are, as a general rule, brought within an hour's walk of each family in the land; and therefore the oversight and duties of the parents and pastors of the children attending these schools are not, in the least, suspended or interfered with. The constitution or order of discipline and liturgy of each religious persuasion, enjoins upon its clergy and members to teach their children the summary of religious faith and practice required to be taught to the children of the members of each persuasion. *To require*, therefore, any sort of denominational teaching in Common Day Schools, is not only a work of supererogation, but a direct interference with the liturgical or disciplinary codes and functions of each religious persuasion, and providing by law for the neglect of clerical and parental duties, by transferring those duties to the Common School teacher, and thus sanctioning immoralities in pastors and parents which must, in a high degree, be injurious to the interests of public morals. Economy as well as patriotism requires the schools for all to be open to all upon equal terms, and upon principles common to all—leaving to each religious persuasion the performance of its own recognized and appropriate duties in the religious teaching of its own youth. In such schools the children can be with the teacher only from nine o'clock in the morning until four o'clock in the afternoon of five or six days in the week; while during each morning and evening, and the whole of each Sabbath, they are with their parents or pastors, and these are the portions of time which usage and ecclesiastical laws prescribe for religious studies and instruction, and for which the teacher, who only sees the children during six or seven of the working hours of each secular day of the week, ought not to be held responsible and with which he cannot be burthened to the advantage of the children, or without criminal neglect on the part of their parents and pastors.

"But in respect to Academies and Colleges the case is different. These are institutions which cannot be brought within an hour's walk of but very few of those who wish and are able to resort to them. Youth, in order to attend such institutions, must, as a general rule, leave their homes, and be taken from the daily oversight and instructions of their parents and pastors. During this part and period of

their education, the duties of parental and pastoral care and instruction must be suspended, or provision must be made in connection with the Academies and Colleges for such oversight and instruction. Youth attending such institutions, are at an age when they are most exposed to temptation—most need the best counsels in religion and morals—are pursuing studies which most involve the principles of human action, and the duties and relations of human life. At such a period and under such circumstances, youth need the exercise of all that is tender and vigilant in parental affection, and all that is wise in pastoral oversight, yet they are far removed both from their parents and pastors. Hence what is supplied by the parent and pastor at home, must be provided in connection with the Academy and College abroad. And therefore the same reason which condemns the establishment of denominational common schools, justifies the establishment of denominational Academies and Colleges, in connection with which the duties of the parent and pastor can be best discharged."

Although the project failed at the time, the economical views which Dr. Ryerson then put forth in regard to the management of the provincial University were afterwards substantially adopted by those who had so strenuously resisted them before; and although he warned them of the inevitable multiplication of denominational Colleges and Universities should their views prevail, it is a singular fact that no less than three additional denominational Colleges in Upper Canada were, in 1866, invested by the legislature with University powers. In acknowledgment of his eminent ability in this contest the Senate of Victoria College conferred upon him, in 1861, the degree of LL. D.

In 1860, Doctor Ryerson induced the Government to submit to the Legislature a draft of a bill which he had prepared for the further improvement of the system of public instruction in Upper Canada. This law perfected the details, and made it more effective.

In 1867, Doctor Ryerson made his fourth educational tour in the United States and Europe, with the following instructions from the Governor General in Council:—

"To add to the collection of models and works of art for the proposed Provincial School of Art and Design, and to engage the services of a properly qualified master from the graduates of the Government Schools of Art and Design, to take charge of the same. He is also authorized to visit and collect information from the best institutions in the United States and in Europe for the education of the Deaf, Dumb and Blind, to be made available in the proposed Schools for these persons, to be established by the Government in Upper and Lower Canada."

Since his return in 1868, Dr. Ryerson has submitted to the Legislative Assembly a "Special Report on the systems and State of popular education in several countries of Europe, and the United States of America, with practical suggestions for the improvement of public instruction in Upper Canada," closing with an intimation of his purpose to make a separate report on Institutions for the Deaf and Dumb and Blind in different countries.

In a communication quoted in the (Ontario Province) Journal of Education, referring to this special report, (which at this time we have not seen,) Dr. Ryerson observes:

"As the result of observations and reflections, I believe in our common schools we have the advantage of any country or state I have yet visited. But I believe that in some of the practical details of the working of the law, important improvements can be made, especially in the more efficient inspection of schools, and in means to prevent the best teachers from early leaving their profession. The examples of Holland and Switzerland on these and several other subjects, will be very suggestive to us. The system of elementary instruction in the former was established when Holland was the Batavian Republic; that system has survived three revolutions—exists, with slight modifications, yet still non-denominational, after half a century's trial, in its entire integrity—receives small appropriations from the State, (which yet oversees everything,) and places Holland at the head of popularly educating countries. In some of its largest cities, there is reported not to be a child of ten years of age, of sound mind, that cannot read and write. In Switzerland—a country hardly one-twelfth the size of Upper Canada, though with twice our population—there are no less than twenty-five republics, each with its own educational system—presenting in many instances, very remarkable results—thus affording an interesting and suggestive study for the educationalist and statesman in a country like ours."

Without being prepared to adopt the very favorable estimate formed by Dr. Ryerson of the system of public instruction in Upper Canada—now the Province of Ontario in the Dominion of Canada—we cite at the close of this article the opinion of an excellent judge of the value of Dr. Ryerson's labors in inaugurating and administering this system—and fortify both by the following tabulated summary of the progress of the system from 1844 to 1866:

**A GENERAL STATISTICAL ABSTRACT,
Exhibiting the comparative state and progress of Education in Upper Canada, as connected
Grammar, Common, Normal, and Model Schools, from the year 1842 to 1861. Compi-**

A GENERAL STATISTICAL ABSTRACT,—Continued

A decrease—caused by this institution of an Entrance Examination during holidays and vacations. Principally taken from 1890—no record from Nov. 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, and 23, represent actual payments only. If we add 0.024 for Educational purposes during 1891 and for 1890, \$1,615,670—studied until 1851. **Note.**—The Returns in the foregoing Table, up to the last date on which they can be obtained, show the amount paid by each student up to which the University.

EDUCATION IN UPPER CANADA.

GENERAL STATISTICAL ABSTRACT, (continued.)

No.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.
1					
2	403,303	412,367	424,565	436,757	431,812
3	13	16	16	16	16
4	11	95	95	104	104
5	342	340	257	260	298
6	4	3	3	3	3
7	3,995	4,012	4,077	4,151	4,222
8	103	120	147	132	157
9	3,111	3,258	3,459	3,595	3,741
10	4,554	4,587	4,565	4,686	4,860
11	1,373	1,820	1,820	1,820	1,931
12	4,982	5,352	5,589	5,754	5,179
13	6,784	6,653	5,718	5,965	6,462
14	700	700	700	700	800
15	329,033	344,949	354,330	365,532	372,320
16	14,700	15,830	17,365	18,101	18,575
17	357,572	375,333	385,522	397,902	405,267
18	6959,776	6987,555	6996,956	\$1,041,032	\$1,066,880
19	929,917	926,802	928,302	934,827	930,353
20	\$1,921,000	\$1,254,447	\$1,985,318	\$1,355,879	\$1,537,233
21	\$73,211	\$70,121	\$75,854	\$81,562	\$87,055
22	\$7,502	\$3,470	\$6,139	\$5,251	\$17,633
23	\$223,534	\$287,768	\$269,668	\$274,514	\$328,065
24	\$1,535,240	\$1,621,866	\$1,636,979	\$1,717,206	\$1,820,606
25	4,406	4,504	4,025	4,721	4,789
26	3,115	3,094	3,011	2,930	2,925
27	1,291	1,410	1,614	1,791	1,864
28	10 ²	10 ²	11 ¹ ₀	11 ¹ ₁	11 ¹ ₁

The following intelligent and impartial testimony as to the success of the Rev. Dr. Ryerson's labors in Canada, is taken from a recent report of the Rev. James Fraser, M. A., Assistant Commissioner of the English and Scotch Schools Inquiry Commissions, who was specially deputed to proceed to America to report upon the systems of education in operation there. At the close of an elaborate and most careful analytical report on the school system of Upper Canada, Mr. Fraser concludes as follows:—

"Such, in all its main features, is the School system of Upper Canada. A system not perfect, but yet *far in advance*, as a system of national education, of any thing that we can show at home. It is indeed very remarkable to me that in a country, occupied in the greater part of its area by a sparse and any thing but wealthy population, whose predominant characteristic is as far as possible removed from the spirit of enterprise, an educational system *so complete in its theory and so capable of adaptation in practice* should have been originally organized, and have been maintained in what, with all allowances, must still be called successful operation for so long a period as twenty-five years. *It shows what can be accomplished by the energy, determination and devotion of a single earnest man.* What national education in England owes to Sir J. K. Shuttleworth, what education in New England owes to Horace Mann, that debt education in Canada owes to Egerton Ryerson. He has been the object of bitter abuse, of not a little misrepresentation; but he has not swerved from his policy or from his fixed ideas. Through evil report and good report he has resolved, and he has found others to support him in the resolution, that free education shall be placed within the reach of every Canadian parent for every Canadian child."—Pages 278, 279.

VIII. THE GERMAN UNIVERSITY:

COMPARED WITH THE ENGLISH AND FRENCH.

BY A GERMAN.

An Academic Discourse by Prof. H. Von Sybel, at Bonn, March 22, 1808. Translated from the German by A. Angerer, A. M., for the American Journal of Education.

THE German Universities of our day enjoy a high and not unfounded reputation all over Europe. While among ourselves there is scarcely any discussion as to the leading principles on which superior instruction is conducted, and some slight differences exist only on the advisability of introducing some foreign, but in themselves useful secondary objects: we see our great neighboring nations of France and England put in question the existing organization of their Universities from their very foundation, demanding extensive reforms, and continually holding up as models the German high schools. "There is no doubt," says Mr. Grant Duff, a member of the British Parliament, one of the best judges on matters of instruction in Europe, "that the German Universities, although open to criticism are far in advance of us in every point of real efficiency." "A small German University," observes one of the most renowned *savans* of Paris, M. Renan, "with its awkward professors and half-fed private docents, renders more service to science than all the ostentatious wealth of Oxford." Such praise cannot be otherwise than in a high degree flattering to our national pride, but will, above all, to the true patriot, become an incentive to serious self-examination. Do we actually occupy the height assigned to us by those friendly voices? Does our own activity promise a continuation of this happy condition secured by our fathers? Can we not learn from foreign countries as well as they from us? Modern improvements bring about constant interchange of ideas and habits among nations in every sphere of public life: is it not possible that a similar interchange should take place in regard to the Universities?

Considering their actual condition, the institutions which in Germany and England are designated by the common name of Universities, and which have been created in France, partly under other names, for the same purpose of superior scientific instruction, are totally different things. In France there is, as yet, no institution for superior education, which, like our University, combines all branches of science within its sphere. There are schools of jurisprudence, of medicine; faculties of theology and belles-lettres; there are institutions, like the *Collège de France*, which unites in its halls a group of various disciplines. The method of teaching and objects of instruction are very different in these various schools. Some, like the *École des chartes*, may be compared

to our Seminaries; others are intended only for the quickest possible training of their pupils for some practical vocation.

We are reminded of the exterior arrangement of our Universities by the great institutions of the *Collège de France* and the *Sorbonne*; but after the first observation we discover that even there we find ourselves in a totally different world. M. Renan lucidly describes their condition: "The Paris professor opens his lecture-hall to the public gratuitously. He knows not how many students, desirous of learning, he has, nor how many idlers in want of entertainment there are among his hearers. He knows not whether to-morrow a single one of to-day's auditory will occupy a seat, and whether he will not address an entirely different audience. Thus each lecture must be something complete in itself, and in its form be arranged and shaped for rhetorical effect, as the sensitive taste of a highly cultivated and spoiled public demands. If this is done by a man of genius, who has a profound and methodical learning at his command, the result is seen in discourses which rank among the highest master-pieces, and which neither German nor English institutions can ever present. But it will be easily seen that this series of independent discourses is anything but a scientific school. The lecturer must spend the greater part of his strength on the literary form of his discourse; frequently he uses up all means in this direction and covers the deficiencies of the contents by brilliant oratory; under the most favorable circumstances he presents literary productions, complete and finished in themselves, conclusive results of a long continued research, in which, however, the pain and labor of research is carefully hidden. In this way it is absolutely impossible, in the course of a semestre, to treat a subject in a scientific method in its entire bearing, and, what is more important, the hearer knows nothing about the mental operations by which the results presented to him have been reached. He hears, for example, a discourse on the deeds of Alexander the Great, but gains not the slightest insight into the philological and historical studies required for its preparation. In one word, matter of science is furnished, but scientific investigation remains untaught. The high school is no longer a place for original contributions to science, for the best methods of interrogating nature, but charms of style and delivery are the marks of the successful teacher. "The danger of France," says Renan, "consists in this: we are becoming a nation of brilliant lecturers and fine writers."

The totally opposite way, in academic instruction, has been taken in England. Here the complaint is not that the University is too little of a school, but that it does too much, almost exclusively the work of the school. The tutor, the repetitor, has crowded out the professor. The professor delivers a dozen lectures per year in the manner of Paris rhetorician. The instruction proper is given in the colleges, entirely in the form of our gymnasiums. The leading object, which determines the direction and material of Oxford studies, is not the training of the student for a practical vocation; nor is it to introduce him to science in its pro-

founder character, but it is the development and formation of general capacity, of the ability to think and speak, of facility in combination, soundness of judgment, skill in expression: it is the object of our gymnasiums, as said before, only taken in a higher sense and more fully developed, according to the riper age and more advanced degree of culture of the student. All tends to this superior view. The external condition of schools is munificently provided for. It is an established rule that the students of a college should live together, be under constant surveillance, and arrange their studies upon the plan of the institution. The advantage of these arrangements is now seriously doubted; the advocates of these regulations do not lay so much stress on the prevention of excesses, as by living closely together the possibility of infection grows as well as the possibility of control; they ascribe more importance to the secure and noble bearing of the gentleman, which is acquired by constant intercourse with companions of good society. In regard to the matter of instruction, they have predominantly the ancient languages, mathematics, some history, certain reflections which are called philosophy, and for the future clergy a little theology. The study of professional science is generally left to the first years after the close of the academic course. The University lecture appears only in an occasional public discourse; generally the form of teaching is tutorial; the teacher develops, questions, hears recitation, has compositions written and criticises the same. In every respect one sees the preponderance of the general pedagogic object, and in this regard the results are not at all insignificant. One of the most prominent members of the party of reform at Oxford acknowledges that the historic-philological treatises of older students testify to an eminent and delightful development and maturity of mind. The young authors take a skillful hold of the subject, bring light to bear on its various sides by penetrating debates; develop thoughts of frequently surprising sharpness and practicability, and by style and essence show themselves ready men. "They form," says Pattison,* "without doubt, the very flower and hope of England for the next generation." But not less characteristic is the other side of this relation. If we inquire after this independent and original knowledge, which lies at the root of this elaborate composition, we find but little. The young author discourses with a cultivated political reason on the effects of the constitution of Solon; but he has never read anything on this subject outside of Grote's History of Greece. The material thus obtained at second hand he knows how to use more artistically than many of our learned seminarists, the results of their own study of original authors. But in regard to the next product of inquiry he remains everywhere dependent upon his modern authority; he knows not from experience what emancipation of the individual mind, scientific thoroughness and free depth of thought mean. "It is," says Pattison,

**Suggestions on Academical Organisation, with special reference to Oxford.* By Mark Pattison. London, 1868.

with striking expression, "as if our Universities were destined only to teach in perfection the art of writing leading articles." Corresponding to this characteristic of scholars is, naturally, in light and shade, the quality of teachers. In the background we see a great number of mysterious and well instructed schoolmasters; in the whole the development of science in England takes place elsewhere than in the Universities. Thus we see, from opposite starting-points, both French and English education arrive at the same result. "We are in danger of becoming a people of fine writers," says Renan. "It seems as if our youth should learn only to write editorials," declares Pattison. Both, and their countrymen with them, direct their eyes to the German University. They find here not inconsiderable defects; they are in part of opinion that our Universities reached perfection thirty years ago and have since declined; but in the main organization, in the leading principle, they profess still to see a safe source, the main-spring of intellectual revelation for other nations.

If we further inquire which of our arrangements they particularly admire, to what principle assume our superiority, their uniform answer is: *the constant union of research and instruction*. It is not anything external which they esteem; not the corporate privileges which in France are very lightly thought of, and which in England they believe themselves to have in excess; not the academic liberty of student life, which in England is deemed license; no, the praise of strangers touches the heart of the subject and designates truly the just foundation of all the good we have. Our Universities are good educational institutions, not only because they impart instruction, but because they are workshops of science; because a continued scientific production is the inspiration of all their teaching. For this purpose the state gathers the best scientific talent of all Germany as teachers around the Universities, so that the example, of daily occurrence in France and England, of a man of acknowledged learning and power, without academical connection, is among us very rare. For this reason every academic appointment is based, first and last, on literary activity and the capacity of scientific production as well as on ability of teaching in a formal sense. We demand of our Universities that they prepare young men for the future practice of various professions of life; but we do not expect them to fulfil this task in a mechanical and compendious manner. We do not wish them to impress on the memory of students, in the shortest and most practical manner, those facts and items of knowledge which are necessary to pass an examination, or for the trial year in the profession. On the other hand, we do not require in our *docents* the highest ability in skillful lecturing at Universities as the public of Paris demand of theirs. Our object is mainly seen in imparting to the student the method of his science, in order to enable him, not to become necessarily a learned man, but to pursue his vocation, whatever it may be, in a scientific spirit and with scientific power. Above all, he must know what science is, how scientific work is done, and what scientific creative power means. As

far as the limited powers of man allow, the teacher must move in fresh, original production in his discourse; the student shall, above all, be educated by taking an intuitive part in the process of development of thoughts; whatever in later life may be his vocation, in his academic years he must be a disciple of science and nothing else, because the best preparation for any profession is the acquisition of scientific soundness, quickness and independence of mind.

Our meaning will be more manifest if we glance at the relations of the University to the gymnasium. The gymnasium among us, as the public school in England and the lyceums in France, pursues the same ultimate object—the general training and invigoration of the mind. It selects its matter of instruction, not in reference to its immediate utility in after life, for some use is to be found in every kind of knowledge, but from the consideration of what study will prove the best discipline of the mind. In France, in passing to the University, this distinction disappears altogether; the French faculties are professional schools, which offer a ready scientific course as professional preparation for some practical vocation. In England, in an opposite way, the University is no more than a continued gymnasium; the formal cultivation of the mind is still, as before, the ruling object of instruction. Between these two extremes the German University holds the middle ground. In the material for instruction it pursues the professional preparation for a special vocation; in the method of teaching, it retains in view the object of formal universal culture. Outwardly considered, it consists of a number of professional schools, which, though united in place and corporate fellowship of their members, yet are perfectly independent in their work. In this independence they are, however, intimately connected by a common method of instruction. While in professional schools the choice of material and form of instruction is essentially determined by the demand, to make the student as quick and as universally as possible useful for the exterior duties of his future practice, our academic professional branches, as taught, introduce the student, as deeply as possible, into the working of science and thereby give to the mind the highest manly development. In this they continue the work of the gymnasium, not, as in English Colleges, only in larger extent, but also in a higher degree.

The gymnasium cultivates Latin and Greek in order to exercise the faculty of thinking and speaking in general in the well settled forms of a foreign language; it presents to its pupils the picture of classic antiquity, and the great facts of the Christian religion, in order to direct their aspiration towards morally high and pure objects. Undoubtedly the gymnasial training of the mind is not yet perfect. After the mind, on this preparatory stage, has begun to work by the conception of general impressions, it is necessary that it should justify its progress by the concentration of its powers for a special purpose on a special science. The student becomes master of a spiritual power only when he has made an unlimited use thereof; when he has tested it in

some serious problem, with full effect. This, in the nature of things, is impossible without a separation of the branches of science. The youth, who has just left school, cannot begin an independent scientific research into theology, jurisprudence and medicine at the same time. He must limit himself to one branch in order to penetrate to its depths. While the University invites him to this concentrated and deeper investigation, he continues, notwithstanding the separation of branches, the universal formal education, in the most effective manner, to its perfection.

As means of culture the gymnasium employs the scientific material offered in the philological, historical and mathematical curriculum. It exercises its pupils on the text, as settled by the most learned philologist; it teaches them historical facts as the latest historical research of the age has established them: neither teachers nor pupils pretend to accumulate new and rare knowledge by researches of their own, or to establish themselves independent of the masters of the subject by their own criticism. But such aims are the very element of life at German Universities. They are the very places where learned research, scientific criticism, literary progress are carried on. Their teachers are the organs of the automatical scientific spirit; their students are educated for industrious concentration as well as for mental independence. If any exists, this is the absolute sign of true academic culture. It is not necessary, as it is not possible, that a young man traverse the entire extent of his science from its foundation to the latest discovery, with a perfect knowledge of its literature, in six or eight semesters. Such an encyclopedic effort would be discursive and not deep, and result in superficiality instead of thoroughness of attainment. But it is essential that the student should derive a clear conception of the object of his science and of the processes by which it fulfills this object; it is necessary that he go through these operations himself in some, at least in one, point, where he may say to himself, there is nobody in the world who can teach me anything further on this subject; here I stand firm and safe on my own feet and decide by my own judgment. This consciousness of mental independence, gained by his own efforts, is an inestimable advantage. It is of no moment what subject has been the first in his investigation and which led to this result,—enough that it has, in ever so little a point, broken the dependence of the school; it has tried the strength and the means with which every new problem can now be seized and brought to a similar solution; in the joyous juvenile period it has ripened youth into manhood. As yet he knows not many nor varied things; but he has realized the meaning of "knowledge"; to the slumbering mind is given forever the consciousness of its power and the direction for the ennoblement of the soul in a self-determined speciality.

If, in the above discussion, in order sharply to describe this point, I appear to contrast methodic research and encyclopedic knowledge, I trust my purpose is not misunderstood, as if I would decline the acquisition of a good method, forego altogether the most varied industry in

the collection of facts; as if it were possible to dig deeply without having the control over a certain breadth of soil. The question is only in what direction and for what use knowledge is gathered. He who works in the independent methodical research will soon discover that with every step the demand grows upon him; that in order to perfectly solve a question he must enlarge his knowledge on all sides; that the weight to be lifted becomes heavier every day; but he will also feel that his strength grows daily, that his movements become more secure and more easy. That which was yesterday a burden, hard to remove, has to-morrow become a locomotive. Yea, even more! He who works in this spirit annuls the apparent separation of academic professional schools, the faculties, and reestablishes, in his own part, the living unity of the *universitas literarum*. In ancient forests groups of trees are found, four, five, powerful trunks close together, which show their tops extended to all the points of heaven; if you approach you discover that all originated in the same root, all sprang from one germ in the depth of the earth. Thus it is with the various disciplines of science. Their branches extend in all directions; he who digs into the depth finds their common root. Whoever follows a juridical problem into its last results must deal with fundamental questions of morals, philosophy and religion. He who will thoroughly investigate a problem in history will meet at every step legal, religious and political considerations. In like manner it is with all branches. In one word, he who will make, in any part of science, original, fundamental, conclusive work, is obliged, acting self-moved and independently to take his position towards all the fundamental problems of existence, towards the world and God. This is the highest fruit propagated by the system of instruction at German Universities. If the German nation, within this century, has had the strength for a most powerful progress in all spheres of life, the most important lever of ascent has been found in the training of her superior schools. We can over estimate the gain that our most important institutions of instruction, the advantage, which our Universities give, in their emancipation of the human mind. In all early instruction, authority necessarily governs the whole being, and in later life practice, and with it, again, authority encompass a considerable part of existence. But in one period in his life at least shall every cultivated man on German soil be assured by all the organs of authority, governmental and educational, that he enjoys spiritual freedom. From the depth of his own soul, with the light of independent knowledge, to open his own way through life, such is the aim placed before students by the system of German Universities. Let the individual, as the result of these studies and labors, take this or that direction; let him become liberal or conservative, reactionary or progressive, orthodox or heretic: essential for us is only, no matter what he be, that he has become so, not from habits of youth, unsettled disposition, traditional obedience, but from scientific reflection, critical examination, independent resolution. Then,

and only then, will he be numbered among the masters of his profession, the powerful representatives of his party, the effective organs of his confession, the ornaments and honors of his nation; then, and only then, will he be recognized as belonging to the aristocracy of mind, which belong to no particular social rank, one of the men of true culture.

In these brief sentences I have attempted to present the characteristic features of German Universities. I know but too well what I have expressed is not what we always accomplish, but what we demand of ourselves. I readily agree that the great masters in the first decades of our century have in a higher degree realized the ideal than is given to us, their successors. Not every man is gifted with the power and the opportunity to carry the banner onward to brilliant victories; what we demand of every German youth is, to remain true to this glorious flag and in his modest sphere devote to its service the strength of his life. And upon the whole, firm and true have hitherto been both the teachers and students of German Universities. The essential character of the high schools, as established in the beginning of the century by Schleiermacher and Fred. Aug. Wolf, Süvern and Fichte, W. von Humboldt and Altenstein, has been preserved in its distinctive features unto this day. During the first years after the war of independence (war of 1813 against Napoleon I.) it felt the pressure of political conditions, the immature desire of a part of the students to participate direct and practically in the fiery political questions of the day, and in consequence of this the police reaction of 1819, which placed the Universities in general under a restraining tutelage. Since 1840, theological and confessional considerations have sometimes had more influence on some points of the academic relations than is wholesome for religion and science, and the storms of 1848 have not passed over the German high schools without leaving their traces. But such disturbances have never been of any lasting effect; on the contrary, the system of academic instruction, which I have tried to describe, has made considerable progress in Southern Germany and that part of Europe which had been hitherto entirely closed to its spirit.

Notwithstanding this happy result our picture will be incomplete and consequently inaccurate if, with the light, we do not introduce the shade. I need not mention smaller and special defects, such as appear at all times in all the works of man's hand. I confine myself to one fact, because, as far as I can see, there is in it a danger which strikes at the very root of our entire academic life, and because its effects already begin to be felt; and herein, if anywhere, the observations of foreign critics are justified, that our acknowledged superiority will assuredly end.

For at least a century University attendance has been limited to three years, seldom extending through the fourth. This may have sufficed one hundred years ago, but to-day it is altogether inadequate for the mastery of any of the faculties. The immense increase of scientific material, as well as the greater depth and multiplicity of special disci-

plines, have doubled the work of the student both in intensity and in extent. And as the power of the individual is not greater in the nineteenth than in the eighteenth century, it follows that the work done in the same length of time is inferior in quality or quantity. Three or even four years signify now no more than the same number of semesters. If the work of the University must cover certain subjects within certain prescribed limits, a positive diminution of scientific production is inevitable. Besides, if the year of military service is made to fall in this period of University attendance, there is no possibility of cultivating that feeling for science which requires continuous prosecution, and which it is the great purpose of the University to effect. There is no faculty, no profession in which two or even three years will suffice to do the present extent of work, to prepare properly for the examination, even in that preparation which the drastic language of students call "beating in." But as this examination is a condition precedent to all future official appointment, all the diligence of students is necessarily devoted to this end;—hence all independent research, all practice of scientific method, all philosophical and historical confirmation of professional studies must be, in most instances, abandoned. Complaint is made of mere utilitarian study, of work which aims only at securing future subsistence, of the superficial materialistic ambition of our youth. But the youth of to-day and of a previous generation is still the same; it is still enthusiastic, still eager for knowledge, still hungry and athirst for intellectual freedom; it is still healthy human nature in the freshness of young existence. But young men, as well as old, must live, and until this can be assured, we cannot expect they will strive for something superior and nobler.

And herein we find much in England to admire and envy. From those who acknowledge the superiority of the scientific results of our Universities, we learn that England has provided in national grants, and in a long succession of aid endowments, for the spiritual culture of her youth. The annual surplus income of Oxford for a single year—the sum unappropriated to the payment of professors—would defray all the expenditures of the largest German University for a year. The amount awarded in prizes and scholarship exceeds the entire income of the University of Bonn. This munificent revenue of the English University is not a grant of the government, on which we, in the absence of individual liberality, are compelled to rely, but springs from foundations established by beneficent individuals, who have thus erected to themselves monuments in the perpetual succession of ingenuous youths, whom their liberality has stimulated to greater exertions.

A perfectly competent witness recently summoned before a British parliamentary committee, in answer to an enquiry as to the educational condition of Germany, declared: "All essential defects in the German University spring from one want—the want of money." If by this want is meant the want of means to reduce the expenses of necessary residence, or to

enable students to complete the scientific work provided for them, the witness is correct. It is my firm conviction that the vital problem of University prosperity and progress with us is to enable a majority of our students to prolong their residence for at least five years. Until we can provide the means, it would be cruel to many and injurious to most, to require an examination which necessitates a longer residence than at present. Its immediate effect would be the exclusion of a very large and very talented portion of our young people from an academic education. It will be better to secure a prolonged period of optional study by stipends and premiums. This can be done in the same way that similar devotion to special professional preparation is secured in the Seminaries. These Seminaries are in the most prosperous condition—supplied with competent teachers and enthusiastic students—and in them the work of the University is carried on and out to its legitimate conclusion. Originally limited to theology and philology, they now exist for jurisprudence, history and the natural sciences, and in them are trained teachers and professors for our gymnasiums and the Universities, as well as able jurists and theologians. Most of them are able to award to diligent students a stipend of twenty dollars—an amount too small to be accounted hardly more than a mark of success, and yet capable of being applied to the moderate expenses of residence. How much would thorough scientific study and culture be promoted if these stipends could be increased and multiplied! and especially if they could encourage and secure attendance on University lectures for one or two years after the doctorate examination has been passed, which, with a majority of students, being the legal goal, is also the seeming limit of voluntary sacrifice. This is one of the directions in which the example, set by a commercial house in Bonn, can be followed with immense advantage to our German nation by wealthy citizens of this and other provinces of Prussia.

The example of England can be a model for our academic institutions in still another direction. Some years ago Dr. Doellinger, in an excellent discussion on German Universities, raised the question, whether the revival of the ancient *bursae* were not possible or advisable; arrangements for the exterior life of students, as they are before our eyes in the English Colleges; boarding establishments under the administration of officials of the academy, like the one which King Max. II., of Bavaria, has founded on a grand scale and on excellent principles. He who is inclined to dismiss a similar proposition as untimely or in opposition to our custom, had better see with his own eyes how much in the life of our students is injurious to physical health and strength, and consequently to mental ability and freshness for work, and then form his judgment as to the benefits likely to be derived from practical measures directed to this point. It is understood that under all circumstances the fundamental principle of academic freedom should be maintained. Nobody should be forced to join a particular establishment or restrained from entering it. A certain domestic order would be guaranteed where many

live together; but it should not pass beyond the most necessary regulations, and, above all, the choice of subjects, time and scientific method of study should in no manner be hampered. The German University asks no other diligence than that which flows from the individual will of the student; it must desire arrangements which furnish the exterior basis and vital necessities for this diligence, respecting, always, as first and last, the principle of individual liberty.

If in this, or any other manner,—for means and ways for a good purpose are many,—we should be able to retain a portion of our students at least ten semesters at the University, the result would be great. The endangered scientific thoroughness of study, which is considered the characteristic object of our entire system, would be again assured. It would then become possible to deliberate in what manner the most effective impulse for a connection of professional studies with a general philosophical education could be given to members of professional and special faculties. Finally we would be so situated as to counteract, by positive means, the tendency for bread study. Until then every accusation of utilitarian motive and end against the young students must be declared unjust and undeserved. I would not dare to speak thus with such emphasis if, from an experience of many years, I did not know that our students will not misinterpret me; for the cause of this apparent defection from the old idea of University study lies not in this disposition; now, as heretofore, the great majority expresses the conviction that even under privations and sacrifice true and profound science is their great aim in life. It is the duty and the interest of the nation to enable her sons to train themselves by a severe service in science for the highest practical service of the fatherland.

We all know that the present situation of the state will not authorize the expenditure of large sums for any other purpose than the defence of our country. But does not the preparation for national defence include the question whether the nurseries of our statesmen, officers and teachers should maintain their former elevation or be degraded to mere training schools for professional routine? We also know that in our Prussian state, which, during half a century, has signalized every new advance in civilization, as well as the completion of its martial victories, by the creation of a University; every proved want in matters of instruction will be supplied as far as the national revenues allow. Where these are limited, the spontaneous action of individuals, communes and provinces must seek occasion to supply them. The whole people, in addition to the desire for political liberty, have gained the consciousness of national independence, and we hope entertain clear convictions that common action alone can lay the solid foundation of national liberty.

In dwelling on the superiority of our Universities I have not hesitated to point out, with perfect candor, existing defects. Fortunately for our country the time is past when it was considered a want of patriotic prudence to discuss publicly the advantages of other countries, in any respect,

above our own. That was a time of unhealthy, and therefore pretentious, weakness; there was a sensitiveness, even in subordinate matters, because in the main there existed the feeling of dislocation and confusion. These days are past. Thanks to the resoluteness and firmness of our great monarch a period of consolidation, unity and higher development has begun in the life of the German nation. We live, as yet, in a period of transition. The duty rests on our people to keep the musket by the side of the plow and the book. But the decisive step has been taken. Germany rests in its newly united strength; the nation has regained self-consciousness. Now it can extend the most searching examination into every part of its life; it no longer objects to learn the advantages of other countries on any point whatever. For if formerly it feared the disregard of neighbors, it knows now that, for the first time in six hundred years, foreign nations have, with little affection so far, a deep respect for the German name. This is the work of the King of Prussia, the head of the German Confederation, whose birth-day anniversary we celebrate this day. Long live His Majesty, King William the First.

NOTE.

The writer of this article is the author of a History of the French Revolution which, both in its German and English dress, is attracting much attention at the present time. His discovery, three years ago, of some original manuscript letters of Marie Antoinette was one of the marked events of the day and called out much debate as to their authenticity, which was completely established by the Bonn professor. He is the editor of the *Historische Zeitschrift*, the leading Review of Central Europe that is devoted to historical subjects; and his opinion has great weight on all points on which he speaks.

INCOME OF OXFORD ENDOWMENTS.

Prof. Pattison in his recent "*Suggestions on Academical Organizations with especial reference to Oxford*," states that of the net income of Oxford endowments, £125,000 (over \$600,000) are appropriated to prizes, scholarships and fellowships; about £32,000 for the payment of professors, and lecturers, (besides a like amount derived from fees of tuition;) and £23,000 to the Heads of Colleges, and a smaller sum to the library, museum, &c.

MASTER SANDS NILES'S SCHOOL, STONINGTON, CONN., 1764-1790.

From the recollections of one of his pupils.

"MASTER NILES" was the first, and for many years, the sole teacher at Stonington, Long Point, (now the Borough.) This school district was set off about 1764, and in the course of the same year, Master Niles* began to teach, at a salary of £40, (afterwards increased to £60,) per annum. Two generations of the boys and girls of Stonington passed under his rod, for he was still teaching in 1790 odd. Of these, my grandmother, Mrs. Fanny Noyes, now, (1865,) in her 90th year, is probably the only survivor.† Among her schoolmates were some who made for themselves more than a local celebrity. Commodore Isaac Chauncy was one of those, who, in his time, smarted under the old master's ferule. Capt. Edmund Fanning, the navigator, whose "Voyages" made one of the most popular books of its class, and his elder brother, Capt. Nathaniel Fanning, who sailed with Paul Jones, and was captain of the maintop when the *Bon Homme Richard* fought the *Serapis*, were indebted to Master Niles for whatever education they had at school.

When my grandmother entered his school—about 1787 or '88—he had grown old in the service. The teacher's office was no sinecure. Vacations came rarely; indeed there was no such thing as a vacation in the modern sense of the term. It is said that for more than twenty years Master Niles was not absent from his post longer than two or three days consecutively; and at such times, his place was supplied by a relative whom he had trained to the work, as an occasional assistant. The scholars had always the weekly half-holiday, and on Saturday forenoon the only exercise required of them was the recitation of a portion of the Assembly's Catechism, after which school was dismissed at an earlier hour than on other days.

There were two sessions daily—from 9 to 12 A. M., and 1 to 5 P. M. The scholars sat on long benches or forms, before flat, counter-like desks which were fastened to three walls of the school-house, on the sides. A large open fire-place, (made for burning four-foot wood,) was at one end of the room, and distributed what heat it could over a limited space. But wood fires availed little against the "thorough ventilation" which weather-cracks, and shrinkage, and broken glass ensured to this, as to most other school-houses of its day; and in winter the scholars suffered greatly from the cold. On one side of the fire-place was a closet, the depth of the chimney, for hanging hats and outside garments; on the other, a narrow entry, where the bell was hung. This bell—a somewhat unusual appendage to a village school-house of the last century—had been obtained from a foreign ship wrecked near Stonington harbor.

The studies had no wide range. Reading and spelling, writing, arithmetic—with lessons in navigation and surveying to some of the older boys—constituted the whole curriculum. But what was taught, was taught thoroughly. I have never met with one of Master Niles's pupils who was not a good reader, a good writer, and a good speller. At eighty-nine, the one whose recollections of the school I am now recording, writes (and by the way, without glasses,) the same

*Master Niles was a son, or nephew, of the Rev. Samuel Niles, of Braintree, (who wrote a History of the French and Indian Wars,) studied for the ministry, became a "Separatist," or "Strict Congregationalist," and subsequently united with the Baptist church. He printed, in 1788, a tract entitled "Some Short Remarks upon a late Anonymous Writer on Baptism."

†Deceased, October, 1867.

neat, plain, copper-plate hand which I have seen in her school-copies, and which is refreshing to eyes which have been tried by the penmanship of young ladies taught in modern fashionable schools. The old-fashioned writing has a stiff look and wants a certain grace, it is true; but it looks as if it was meant to be read, which is, after all, about the only use to which writing can be put. (An acquaintance, who received an invitation to tea not long ago, told me that it was only by a careful enumeration of acute angles that he could guess whether he was asked to meet a few *friends*, or a few *fiends*.)

Arithmetic was taught without other "system" than the Master's "cyphering book" supplied. Each scholar was expected to transcribe this into a book of his or her own—by way of writing lesson; and to learn the rules, and work the sums, as they went on with the copy. For teaching the proper mode of holding and managing the pen, a lead pencil or bit of stick was passed under the third and over the second and fourth fingers, and, thus held, the scholar traced, with a quill, the outline of a circle or capital O, which was cut in every desk.

The afternoon of Friday was appropriated to a spelling exercise in which the whole school took part. There was no "choosing sides," but superiority was determined by the least number of "misses." Every scholar was allowed to give out a word, or rather, to write and hand it to Master Niles to be proposed to the school. Every "miss" was entered in his book, and at the close of the exercise, the name of the scholar who had the least number of marks was declared as best speller, and some trifling "reward of merit" was assigned to him or her. The words might be selected from any English book, including proper names; but occasionally the selection was restricted to the Bible, and then the proper names of the Old Testament became the *tours de force*. My grandmother has not yet lost the benefit of these spelling lessons, and can spell her way, without hesitation, from Adonizedek to Zurishaddai—through Chepharhaammonai, Mahershalalhashbaz, and Nebuchadnezzar.

Sometimes the whole school studied together, and *aloud*, the lessons which were to be committed to memory. The multiplication table, tables of weights and measures, &c., were learned in this way—forty or fifty scholars repeating aloud their "Twice one is two, twice two is four," &c.

Master Niles was severe, not to say brutal, in his punishments. Rod and ferule were constantly at work, and their dispensation was tolerably impartial—the "big girls," or, as we should now call them, young ladies, receiving their full share. Sometimes the scholars managed to retaliate, by fastening crooked pins in his chair cushion, and by divers exploits of similar character, not unpracticed by modern school boys. One girl whom he had cruelly flogged devised an original revenge. The master had a special dislike of *perfumery*—amounting to antipathy—and most of all, disliked *bergamot*, the popular perfume of that day. Miss Tripp procured a phial of bergamot essence and wheedled one of the big boys into emptying it, unobserved of the master, among the curls of his full-bottomed wig. As the hated odor found its way to his nostrils, he became first wrathful—then sick—*very* sick—and finally was obliged to dismiss school in haste, that he might relieve his stomach and subject his head and its covering to thorough purification. He once compelled one of the larger boys, for some more than usually heinous offence, to sit on the hearth of the great fireplace, while he poured *hot ashes* on his head.



ETCHED BY JOHN SARTORIUS

Almira Lincoln Phelps.

